

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

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# The Historical Outlook

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

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## The Procurement of Quartermaster Supplies During the World War<sup>1</sup>

BY ALBERT L. SCOTT.

The total appropriations for the Quartermaster Corps during the Great War were approximately seven billions of dollars. This enormous sum was spent largely for food, shoes, clothing and such other items as made up the non-fighting equipment of the soldier. The amounts spent by the Quartermaster Corps were the largest single items of war expense—greater than the expense for guns and ammunition and larger than the entire naval appropriation.

While not so spectacular as building ships or aeroplanes, the work of the quartermaster is, at the beginning of a war, more important, for as soon as a soldier is recruited he must eat and sleep even though he does not have a gun or ammunition.

### PROCUREMENT DIVISIONS BEFORE THE WORLD WAR.

The procurement divisions of the army at the beginning of the war and their functions were as follows:

(a) Ordnance Department—which had to do with the procurement of all guns, arms, ammunition and the fighting equipment of the soldier.

(b) Engineer Corps—which had to do with the procurement of equipment for engineering purposes, such as shovels, picks, road-making and bridge-building equipment, cranes, locomotives, railroad material, hydraulic and pier building machinery, etc.

(c) Medical Corps—which had to do with the procurement of all medical, surgical and hospital supplies.

(d) Signal Corps—which had to do with the procurement and installation of all telephone, telegraph and signalling systems, and to which had been added aviation.

(e) Quartermaster Corps—which had to do with the procurement of the non-military equipment of the soldier, his food, clothing, blankets, shoes, his housing either in tents or barracks, etc. The Quartermaster General also procured many miscellaneous supplies, not easily classified, such as certain kinds of hardware, typewriters, animal-drawn vehicles and

harness for handling quartermaster equipment, motor vehicles, tarpaulins, rope, band instruments, flags, insignia, medals, etc., etc.

These procurement divisions competed among themselves for certain items of equipment. For example, the Ordnance Department purchased certain duck for gun coverings and the Quartermaster Corps purchased similar duck for tarpaulins. The Medical Corps purchased cotton cloth for bandages, the Quartermaster Corps purchased similar materials. The engineers purchased motor trucks, so did the quartermaster, and instances of similar competition could be multiplied indefinitely. This situation, however, was not serious when the military requirements of the country were comparatively small, and, while the system could hardly be called efficient, it was as good a system as could be expected in a country where a suspicious Congress had divided the military establishment into separate departments with each department seeking separate appropriations.

But the competition did not stop there. In the Quartermaster Corps itself a similar stupid so-called competition existed. The depot quartermaster at Philadelphia went into the market along with similar officers at St. Louis, Boston, Chicago or some other depot, each trying to buy the same articles and each operating more or less regardless of the other.

An astonishing fact was that early in 1917 it apparently had not occurred to any one in the Quartermaster Corps that the country might not be able to meet any drains which might be put upon it. Supplies always had been forthcoming, there was no precedent to show that they would not always come as needed. But no survey of the country's producing capacity had been made nor had there been any study to develop a method as how best to secure from the nation's industries the supplies for millions of men.

### OUTLINE OF PRE-WAR ORGANIZATION OF QUARTERMASTER CORPS.

The Quartermaster Corps was organized with a Quartermaster General located in Washington, surrounded by a small staff of assistants. The personnel of the corps generally was located at army posts or at quartermaster supply depots, where most of the actual buying and all the distributing of supplies was done.

<sup>1</sup> Albert L. Scott is an engineer and vice-president of the Lockwood, Green Company, of Boston. He was a member of the Committee on Supplies of the Council of National Defense, and was chief of the Supply and Equipment Division of the War Department until June 1, 1918. He is a life member of the American Historical Association.

The principal depots were located as follows:

New York,  
Boston,  
Philadelphia,  
Washington,  
New Orleans,  
Atlanta,  
St. Louis,  
Chicago,  
San Francisco,  
Jeffersonville,  
Dallas.

There were also a number of other smaller supply depots located in various parts of the country. Some depots, like those at Philadelphia (Schuylkill Arsenal) and Jeffersonville, were manufacturing depots, buying raw materials and manufacturing tents, harness, clothing and other quartermaster supplies.

These depots purchased materials and supplied army posts in their districts, subject to a general control by the Quartermaster General. He approved specifications, called for bids on a few large contracts, determined the quantity of food, clothing and equipage to be issued to each soldier, and in general directed the buying and issuing activities of the various depots.

The organization was undermanned and directed by men thoroughly incompetent for one of the greatest procurement programs the world had ever known.

Such was the situation in the Quartermaster Corps when the United States entered the war.

#### SHORT OUTLINE OF HISTORY OF COUNCIL OF NATIONAL DEFENSE.

It would be unfair to leave the impression, however, that because no one in the Quartermaster Corps had carefully prepared for the eventuality of war the question had not been considered, and while probably its real importance was not appreciated, a mechanism had been provided which later was destined to be the means in the early stages of the war by which the supplies for the soldier were to be secured.

On August 29, 1916, the President approved an Act of Congress creating a Council of National Defense. On March 3, 1917, the Council was fully organized with an Advisory Commission of seven, who were to be men with special knowledge of some industry. Previously on February 12, 1917, a Committee on Supplies was created to co-operate in an advisory capacity with the purchasing officers of the Army and Navy in securing their requirements of clothing, equipment and subsistence and in co-ordinating the buying by the departments of these supplies. This was the first effort made to bring about co-operation among the buying departments of the Army and Navy. The method of purchasing supplies by the War and Navy Departments had been by securing proposals from bidders. This method, although fair and impartial and proper in peace times, was cumbersome and not calculated to stimulate production or competition. It had also developed groups of men generally known as army and navy contractors,

familiar with governmental specifications and procedure, willing to wait a long time for their money, and frequently although not always, merely middlemen, buying themselves from the actual manufacturers and selling to the government.

When war actually broke out the Council, and particularly the Committee on Supplies realized that the old methods of calling for bids would fail to produce supplies promptly, and in large enough quantities to meet the demand, and therefore on April 12, 1917, the Secretary of War issued a declaration stating that "An emergency exists—and until further order, contracts will be made without resort to advertising for the bids in the letting of the same." This was one of the first moves made by the Secretary of War which enabled the Army to secure its supplies promptly.

#### GENERAL SITUATION WHEN WAR BROKE OUT.

It is difficult to describe the confusion which existed in the Quartermaster Corps when war finally came. As has been previously indicated this department was totally unprepared for the tremendous strain put upon it. The various depots had gradually assumed or acquired large powers in purchasing supplies. While the army was small and the total amount of supplies relatively insignificant, the local buying system worked fairly well, but when the country found itself called upon to equip men by the million the quartermaster organization broke down.

There was no method of control of supplies, and there was no national inventory. Records of the amounts on hand of food or shoes or breeches or any other article were—if not entirely lacking—so inaccurate and obsolete as to be of no value. Each depot quartermaster entered the market to provide supplies for troops he thought he might need to equip. Depots competed with depots in the markets of the country, for clothing, tentage, shoes, food and other supplies. Prices began to rise and the local quartermasters found to their surprise that the country could not meet the demands made upon it. Neither was there any accurate knowledge anywhere of how much of any one article would be needed. Such a war had never before occurred in our history, and we had been curiously lax in learning from the experience of the combatants in Europe. It is only fair to say, however, that probably it would have been impossible for any department, no matter how efficient, to have forecast accurately the requirements. Schedules of sizes were found to be wrong. The basis of figuring the sizes had been the measurements taken from the old regular army, but the new soldier averaged longer feet, a larger head, and was bigger and broader. New size schedules had to be prepared. The specifications were also wrong. The uniform was too complicated to be made in large quantities; the army shoe—even though built on the famous Munson last—was unfitted for use in France and Flanders, and the American army hat could scarcely be used abroad at all. In addition the quantities of each article required were far beyond the normal capacity of the country to produce. The Secretary of War realizing

the need, turned for help to the Committee on Supplies of the Council of National Defense.

This committee was fortunate in having as its chairman Julius Rosenwald, a merchant of Chicago, and as its vice-chairman and active directing head, Charles Eisenman, a retired manufacturer and philanthropist of Cleveland, Ohio. It would be hard to imagine a more ideal man for this most difficult position than Mr. Eisenman. A merchant and manufacturer of approved capacity and experience, he also had imagination, courage of high order, an enormous capacity for work and the ability to draw around him men who were familiar with the problems which faced the country and knew where the materials needed could be secured.

THE COMMITTEE ON SUPPLIES AND ITS RELATION TO  
THE WAR AND NAVY DEPARTMENTS.

When the Committee on Supplies was created it was the intent that it should co-operate with the War and Navy Departments. May 1, 1917, Secretary of War approved the following letter:

ADVISORY COMMISSION  
OF THE  
COUNCIL OF NATIONAL DEFENSE.

April 30, 1917.

*The Quartermaster General,  
War Department,  
Washington, D. C.*

DEAR SIR:

Referring to the confidential hearing this morning between the Secretary of War, General Henry G. Sharpe and General A. L. Smith.

It was agreed that the Committee on Supplies of the Council of National Defense, together with a competent purchasing officer of the Government, may enter into contract for items which are here enumerated, and that such action is hereby approved by the Secretary of War:

May 1, 1917

Approved

NEWTON D. BAKER

Cotton Cloth, O. D. ....	13,000,000 yards
Drawers, wool .....	1,100,000
Gloves, wool, O. D., prs. ....	381,856
Shoes, Russet, prs. ....	1,018,270
Stockings, wool, light wt. ....	1,750,000
Undershirts, cotton .....	765,000
Undershirts, wool .....	765,000
Blankets .....	554,568
Cots .....	761,856
Duck, Shelter tent, yds. ....	2,775,000
Duck, Khaki, 12.4 ozs., yds. ....	9,500,000
Drilling, unbleached, yds. ....	930,000
Duck, No. 4, 42", yds. ....	137,500
Duck, Khaki, 8 oz., yds. ....	1,750,000
Flannel, shirting, O. D., yds. ....	2,000,000
Meltons, O. D., 16 oz., yds. ....	2,412,500
Meltons, O. D., 30 oz., yds. ....	1,675,000
Bobbinette, 72", yds. ....	2,250,000
Bobbinette, 52", yds. ....	2,300,000

and such other quantities of the above items as may have been previously authorized but not purchased.

Yours truly,

(Signed) CHARLES EISENMAN,  
*Committee on Supplies.*

This letter provided that purchasing officers in the Quartermaster Corps should be advised by the Committee on Supplies as to where certain articles of clothing and equipment could be secured, and as to the price which should be paid. The principal items upon which the Committee on Supplies originally advised were food (although not mentioned in Mr. Eisenman's letter of April 30), clothing, knit goods, shoes, hats, woolen goods, cotton goods, and certain items of hardware. Later rubber goods and linen thread were added. This letter put the War Department in close co-operation with the Committee on Supplies, a relationship which continued until the Committee on Supplies was taken over by the Quartermaster Corps on January 18, 1918. The Navy Department never co-operated to any great extent. Its problem was simpler than that of the War Department, the quantities to be purchased were much less, and its pre-war buying organization was more efficient. Better co-operation on the part of the Navy would have made the work of the Committee on Supplies much easier, and frequently the Committee on Supplies, due to its greater familiarity with the market, quietly and unostentatiously assisted the Navy Department, often without the knowledge of the Navy itself. The Committee on Supplies became the great organization of the government for the procurement of clothing and equipage.

ORGANIZATION OF THE COMMITTEE ON SUPPLIES.

With the approval of the Secretary of War to Mr. Eisenman's letter the work of the Committee on Supplies may be said fairly to have begun. The committee was organized in groups for the procurement of foods (later taken over by the Food Administration), shoes, footwear generally, rubber goods, cotton goods, woollens, knit goods, and linen thread. A most excellent statistical department was established, since the Quartermaster Corps at that time had no such department worthy of the name, and a group was formed to study and tabulate requisitions. Relations were formed with the depots, especially the great supply buying depot at Philadelphia (Schuylkill Arsenal) and the great buying and manufacturing depot at Jeffersonville, Indiana. Less intimate, but equally direct, relations were set up with all the other quartermaster depots, but especially those at Chicago, St. Louis, Boston and Atlanta, where large quantities of foods, shoes, cottons and woollens were purchased and received.

METHODS USED BY THE COMMITTEE ON SUPPLIES.

The first thing the Committee on Supplies did was to try to find out as accurately as possible what the war requirements of the country were to be in the articles with which it had to deal. Such a quest was



very difficult early in 1917. Nobody knew anything about it, and the best posted men in the Army and Navy could only guess.

On June 21, 1917, the official figures were to prepare for an army as follows:

Regular army .....	303,000 men
National guard .....	453,000 men
National army from ....	500,000 to 625,000 men
	1,256,000 to 1,381,000 men

In addition to the requirements mentioned in Mr. Eisenman's letter, instructions were issued to provide maintenance requirements for every three months (in addition to requirements for initial issue) as follows:

Per 1,000,000 men.

Cotton Cloth, O. D. ....	9,125,000 yards
Gloves, wool, O. D., prs. ....	250,000
Drawers, wool .....	2,000,000
Shoes .....	1,000,000
Stockings, wool, lt. wt. ....	1,750,000
Undershirts, cotton .....	500,000
Undershirts, wool .....	1,000,000
Blankets .....	500,000
Cots .....	250,000
Drills, unbleached .....	3,550,000
Duck shelter tent .....	3,000,000
Duck, Khaki, No. 4, 42" ....	137,500
Duck, Khaki, 124 oz. ....	8,750,000
Duck, Khaki, 8 oz. ....	2,225,000
Flannel Shirting, O. D. ....	2,000,000
Meltons, O. D., 16 oz., yds. ...	2,367,000
	(suits)
Meltons, O. D., 30 oz. ....	1,725,000
	(overcoats)
Bobbinette, 36 .....	6,800,000
	(mosquito bars)

These stupendous requirements made it absolutely necessary to get enough, but at once the committee was confronted with the fact that the country could not readily produce the quantities of supplies needed. So the committee undertook to find out what the country could produce. To illustrate, one of the articles of diet for the soldier was, in pre-war days, strawberry jam. He had of this delicacy a certain amount per day according to the regulations. But the entire country did not produce enough strawberry jam to feed the new army. Substitutes were suggested and finally approved, but at first army regulations must go to the scrap heap.

Generally speaking, the greatest trouble—as might be expected—lay in securing articles not commonly in use by large numbers of men. Everybody eats food, and the country was accustomed in one way or another to feeding its men, but men did not normally live in tents, or wear extra heavy army shoes, or dress in khaki, and it was in these items of shoes, clothing and tentage that the strain was heaviest.

The Council of National Defense had already, through other departments, formed trade committees in the various industries to serve as means of approach to those industries by the Government. The

Committee on Supplies immediately got into close relations with these committees, especially those which had to do with food (later taken over by the Food Administration), shoes and leather, rubber goods, woolens, cottons, knit goods and linen thread. In order to have men on the committee capable of dealing with each industry, men were added to the committee who were familiar with the industries involved. These men dealt with the several trades and represented the committee, and through the committee the government, in requiring from the various industries the amounts the government needed. This was a far cry from the system which previously prevailed of asking for bids on such articles as might be required, but it was the only method which could secure the needed results. To illustrate, the war department required, let us say, 2,000,000 pairs of shoes. The procedure was for the head of the shoe branch of the Committee on Supplies to call in the committee of the shoe trade, designated by the trade to represent them in such negotiations. The group would discuss the entire situation, the needs of the government, the supply of raw material, the civilian demand, the capacity of the various plants of the country for the type of shoe desired, and finally the price. After an agreement had been reached on all these points, the order would be divided or apportioned by the trade committee, and the arrangement formally confirmed by a purchasing officer of the War Department, by a method to be described later.

But in some cases the situation was more complicated. The pre-war production of "army" duck—the duck required for tents—was from 7,000,000 to 10,000,000 yards yearly. The requirement of the War Department to be procured during 1917 was 100,000,000 yards in round numbers; in addition, the needs of the Navy for tarpaulins, kit-bags, etc., the needs of the Post Office Department for mail bags, the needs of the Shipping Board for sails, hatchway coverings, etc.—to say nothing of civilian requirements, such as railway equipment needs, requirements for harvesting machinery, conveyors, belting, etc.—all must be considered. No one in the War Department or the Navy or the country at large had any idea as to what the problem was. The Post Office Department had not customarily consulted anybody when they went into the market for mail bags, and organizations like the Shipping Board had hardly begun to function at all. The Committee on Supplies got in touch with the Navy Department, the Marine Corps, the Engineer Corps, the Post Office Department and all departments of the government which required duck, and it also tried to forecast essential civilian requirements. But after all this had been done, the stubborn fact remained that the country had not the capacity for producing more than a portion of the duck needed by the War Department alone, to say nothing of any other need. To build a cotton mill requires at least a year, and cotton manufacturers were loath to enlarge their plants to make duck because in normal times, when men stopped living in tents, such duck mills would not be needed. So the



Committee on Supplies in co-operation with the trade committee, known as the "Committee on Cotton Goods" undertook to increase sources of supply. Manufacturers of tire fabric—related in some ways to ordinary cotton duck—turned half their production to government requirements. Carpet and rug manufacturers it was found could, with difficulty, make duck and they were stimulated to do so. Duck manufacturers were asked to show carpet manufacturers how to make duck, and trade secrets, which ordinarily could never have been secured, were turned over to competitors for the asking. As a result of this splendid co-operation, fostered by the Committee on Supplies, the needs of the War Department were met, and the Navy and Marine Corps were cared for also, although civilians suffered somewhat. The prices which ruled were almost universally lower to the government than to civilians purchasing at the same time.

In every case the method of operation was essentially the same, viz., the industry was brought into immediate touch with the War Department, middlemen were eliminated as far as possible, orders were equitably distributed and a fair price fixed. In addition, another great step was taken in standardizing specifications so that the number of kinds of goods was reduced, the method of manufacturing simplified, and production thereby increased.

The actual procedure of the Committee on Supplies was about as follows: After negotiations for a given quantity of a certain article had been held, and the details of the transaction, including price, had been agreed upon, a letter of recommendation was written to the purchasing officer having jurisdiction who by a tacit understanding issued a purchasing order in legal form exactly in line with the details of the letter of recommendation. It must be remembered that the Committee on Supplies never had legal authority to buy anything, but it did in effect exercise plenary powers because its recommendations were always carried out.

A rule of the committee was to deal if possible with the manufacturer and not with the middleman, thus eliminating delays and expense to the government. The Committee on Supplies also secured for the government cash discounts—a literally unheard-of proceeding—and in order to secure the discount, developed methods by which the disbursing officer could make his payments promptly.

#### SIZE OF THE TASK.

The task placed upon the Committee on Supplies in May, 1917, was appalling in its magnitude. It had absolutely no tools to work with, no office, no methods, no personnel. The Quartermaster Corps, with whom it had mostly to deal, had been described as "an old ladies' home," and, whether or not that description was correct, was obviously unfit for its great opportunity. The Navy Department was lukewarm in its co-operation. There were no statistics and not even any office space. With an audacity not equalled in

any other buying department, the Committee on Supplies organized, surveyed the country for supplies, placed contracts and secured delivery to such good effect, that after the first few months our army was never hampered for lack of supplies purchased and delivered, although occasionally various units were short because the supplies were not properly distributed. Specifications for many articles were changed, notably for shoes, clothing, hats, overcoats. In the case of shoes, a new system of scientifically measuring feet was devised by a Boston shoe manufacturer, E. J. Bliss, which made it comparatively easy for the disbursing officer to fit the soldiers with a proper shoe.

The actual quantities of some of the materials secured by the Committee on Supplies from the beginning of its work, early in May, until it terminated its activities on January 18, 1918, follow:

[The items on the left deal with the purchases made, those on the right with the goods that had been received by the Quartermaster Department up to January 12, 1918.]

	<i>Purchased</i>	<i>Received</i>
Cotton goods, yards . . . .	363,511,000	167,875,000
Woolen cloths, yards . . . .	94,194,000	40,854,000
Underwear, pieces . . . . .	79,316,000	34,485,000
Stockings, pairs . . . . .	71,124,000	24,075,000
Shoes, pairs . . . . .	21,150,000	10,960,000
Wool shirts . . . . .		8,340,000
Wool coats and breeches . . . . .		7,978,000
Cotton coats and breeches . . . . .		7,894,000
Hats, service . . . . .	8,443,000	4,153,000
Gloves, pairs . . . . .	13,070,783	3,906,376
Leggins and puttees . . . . .	7,687,177	3,815,874
Blankets . . . . .	19,553,000	7,640,000
Wool overcoats . . . . .		2,919,000
Bed sacks . . . . .	4,020,000	2,295,000
Cots . . . . .	2,018,575	1,822,466
Shelter halves . . . . .	3,913,000	1,332,000
Arctic overshoes . . . . .	2,447,000	410,000
Moccasins . . . . .	510,000	235,000
Rubber boots . . . . .	2,235,000	267,000
Knitted toques . . . . .	3,291,000	306,000
Pyramidal tents . . . . .		191,000

In addition to the purchases of the main items of clothing and equipage, some of which are enumerated above, the Committee on Supplies assisted in the procurement of over 300 miscellaneous items. These covered a wide range and made possible the inauguration of the first reclamation units for the Army—hat, clothing, shoe and boot repair. The quantities reached in many instances large proportions. A few representative items, in round figures, are given:

Waist belts . . . . .	5,450,000
Half soles . . . . .	15,000,000
Lifts . . . . .	13,500,000
Heel plates . . . . .	1,500,000
Nails, pounds . . . . .	200,000
Pickax helms . . . . .	375,000
Scrubbing brushes . . . . .	855,000

Although the Committee on Supplies had done its work well and supplies had been purchased with directness and ability, it was evident that such an organization could not be permanent. There seems to be a tendency in the human mind to make things complicated, and the simple direct methods of the Committee on Supplies, free from red tape, seemed equally iniquitous to Congress and to the departments. It was felt absolutely necessary that its operation be hedged in by more governmental procedure, and, therefore, on January 18, 1918, after General George W. Goethals became Acting Quartermaster General, succeeding Major-General Henry G. Sharpe, he took over the Committee on Supplies, and made it a department of the Quartermaster Corps, calling it the Supply and Equipment Division. This move put this group of men out of touch with the other buying departments of the government, who had met daily, through their representatives, on a "Clearance Committee," under the direction of the Council of National Defense, and later under the auspices of the War Industries Board. On this committee the various competing requirements of the different departments of the government were "cleared," and no department was supposed to buy a competing article unless such purchase was approved by the committee. Before its absorption by the Quartermaster Corps, the Committee on Supplies had, theoretically at least, advised with all buying departments. This was now impossible, and the action of the Quartermaster General in taking over the Committee on Supplies, hastened the development of the powers of the War Industries Board. This Board a short time later, under a Presidential letter, took over the responsibility of fixing prices and allocating orders in all industries where the war demand was so great as to make competitive methods impossible.

The builder of the Panama Canal came to his duties as Acting Quartermaster General with his reputation somewhat clouded by his unfortunate experience on the Shipping Board. But his driving and tireless energy, tenacity and directness of purpose were just what the Quartermaster Corps needed. He weeded out inefficiency in his department, brought in new men—principally civilians—to handle the great problems of transport and storage, and developed an organization which could make even more effective the splendid system of procurement already instituted by the Committee on Supplies.

The Supply and Equipment Division, as organized under him, had full charge of procurement, including purchase, inspection and production. Separate branches, each with its own chief and organization, procured the following items:

1. Leather goods, shoes, leather gloves, coats, etc.
2. Rubber goods, boots, slickers, raincoats, etc.
3. Cotton goods, duck, uniform cloth, bandage cloth, etc.; also finishing and waterproofing.
4. Woolen goods, overcoats, uniforms, blankets; also raw wool purchased for use by manufacturers and control of a base sorting-plant where cuttings from uniform manufacturers were reworked into wool.

5. Knit goods, hosiery, underwear, knit puttees, gloves, etc.

6. Animal-drawn vehicles and harness.

7. Hardware and miscellaneous purchases, such as typewriters, musical instruments and nearly 2,000 other items.

8. Manufacturing branch, which had the responsibility of seeing that uniforms, hats, overcoats, etc., were actually manufactured and delivered to the depots.

This division was presided over very largely by civilians, but had a buying officer attached to it, since, under the law, all actual buying for the War Department must be done by an officer.

By this time, owing to the demand, elements came into the situation which had not hampered the Committee on Supplies. Because of the shortage of wool, it became necessary to take over all the wool in the United States, and this operation—a most interesting and almost dramatic one, not attempted by any other warring government—called into being the "Wool, Tops and Noils Branch" at the Supply and Equipment Division to handle it. Meanwhile, the War Industries Board had begun to fix prices for many articles and to allocate orders, and constant conferences were necessary which hampered the direct action of earlier days. Then, too, Congress, as the war proceeded, began to exercise its functions of inquiry, and constant reports were necessary. But as a counterbalancing advantage, the relations previously established with the industries of the country proved to be simpler as time went on—at least for all branches of the Supply and Equipment Division—except the manufacturing branches—and all in all the work of procurement went steadily on, much along the lines established by the Committee on Supplies until June 1, 1918, when the Supply and Equipment Division was broken up into several divisions, a Department of Purchase instituted, which co-ordinated very closely all the buying agencies of the War Department, and a new and final phase of the procurement of supplies was entered upon. This final phase, including the settlements made after the armistice, should properly form the theme of another article.

An interesting account of American culture of the early nineteenth century is found in Emilio Goggio's "Dawn of Italian Culture in America" (*Romanic Review*, July to September, 1919), in which the interest of Americans in matters Italian is studied with especial reference to the period between the age of Jefferson and the Civil War.

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## The Bias of History

BY BENJAMIN CHARLES B. TIGHE, PH.M.

History has been variously defined. In general, it is thought of as a record of man's activities and progress through the centuries. It is intended to convey to the people of to-day a knowledge of the past, which information will be of value in interpreting the present and anticipating the future.

If only history did accurately recount the past no doubt its full value would go unchallenged, but unfortunately the stage is not yet set for the teaching of all the truths of history from which an unprejudiced reader may form scientific conclusions. Of course, an unprejudiced reader of history is more or less of a myth, but there are those who may be approximately so classified, and for their benefit I am led to enter this discussion.

History may be divided into three parts. There are certain historical facts which are generally accepted by all as being authentic, there are unsubstantiated statements accepted by those to whose bias they appeal, and there are lastly the personal opinions of the different writers reflecting the prevailing prejudices in the times in which they wrote or their own preferred bias.

Thus it is that the fair-minded history teacher of to-day has two very important feats to perform. First, he must be willing to present the truths of history uncolored by his own particular viewpoint, and second, he must seek to present material from honest sources, including leading facts on either side of controversial theses.

All down through the ages we learn of certain economic, political, religious, social, moral and militant activities from the historical obscurity of Homer's time until now. Even then we have the many-sided Odysseus performing impossible feats of wonder because Homer was not of Troy, but of Greece, and his writings must satisfy the vanity of the hero worshipers in his native land. From then until now the complexion of society's passions reflects itself in the history of the period. Not only have historians sinned in this regard, but also have literary writers, in trying to strike the popular chord and touch the purse by pouring out poetic adulation to some idol of the time, as did the sycophant Spenser in his "Faerie Queene."

What we to-day recognize as propaganda because of its prevalence in the past few years, has been too often accepted as history in times gone by, to the exclusion of real truths.

Let us suppose that to-day, while the international animosities engendered by the late war are still glowing, a scholar of Germany should write the history of England or vice versa. We certainly would not be wise in accepting the historical narrative as authentic, and in passing it on to succeeding generations. Yet much of what is now accepted as history

has been written by partisan writers during the heat of or immediately following controversies and conflicts of like intensity.

Mr. John C. Rolfe, Professor of Latin Language and Literature in the University of Pennsylvania, has emphasized the danger of accepting the writings of partisan propagandists uncritically. In his published lecture, "A Friend of Caesar's," he speaks of certain Roman literary history directed against Salust as follows: "In weighing the value of such meagre evidence as we have, we must consider the source from which it comes and judge of its credibility accordingly. . . . To estimate the real value of such sources of information, one has only to consider what impression future generations would form of some of the public men of to-day, if their opinion was based solely upon the utterances of personal and political enemies and of the hostile press. Imagine, too, the utter confusion of mind of the luckless historian who should attempt to write an account of the recent world conflict, having as his only material the contradictory official reports of the contending nations. *We may perhaps be saved from utter skepticism as to the credibility of history* by the thought that just as the Germans substituted for the laws of war, which represented the steady progress of centuries towards justice and humanity, those practices which were suggested by their conception of the salutary effect of 'frightfulness;' so they are the originators of a system of misrepresentation and deception which was quite unknown to the ancients and has never been approached in modern times. . . . Doubtless in the perspective afforded by lapse of time the truth becomes manifest, and in this hopeful spirit we may approach our ancient sources."

It was but natural that during the religious controversies of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, victorious Protestantism should present its case in full to the exclusion of facts tending to reflect in any way upon the virtues of the movement or the persons or principles involved, but this fact will not, and should not, to-day, preclude the unprejudiced history teacher from pointing out such errors of historical commission or omission which are attributable to the religious sympathies of those whose pens depicted the history of those times. Half the truth is sometimes more dangerous than none at all. The really valuable citizen is one whose mind is liberalized by a liberal knowledge of the past.

History is often colored at the source; hence we should examine carefully the motive of those who furnish our source material. The Spanish Inquisition was no doubt cruel in the light of standards of to-day, but our historical version is founded upon the very unreliable writings of an ex-priest—Llorente—who

declares himself, that he destroyed the documents upon which he based his report, and thus the authenticity of many of his statements is a matter of grave doubt.

As I write these lines, I see before me on my desk a book entitled, "The True American Revolution," by S. G. Fisher. From this title am I to conclude that the hundreds of volumes written about the American Revolution are all untrue? Not at all, but the inference that a truly unprejudiced story of the Revolution has not previously been written is clearly to be seen. Also, if you will take the pains to read this book you will have a new viewpoint and your opinion of some of the characters who played leading roles in those times will need remodeling. Thus it is that the truths of history regarding impassioned eras must be sought when time has removed the bitterness, softened our viewpoint, and placed the recording pen in the hand of one not an immediate participant in the controversy described. How human it is to present our brief of the case when we are fresh from the conflict—a brief that leaves nothing in doubt as to the magnitude of our virtues and to the manifold faults of our opponent.

Propaganda is not new. It has come down the ages. It is to-day used for both fair and foul ends even in our own country. The *greatest* harm will not come, however, unless some partisan historian of to-day accepts propaganda the same as the truth, and thus distorts for centuries the real historical perspective of the present age, so that a century and a quarter hence some other historian will be writing, "The True Story of the World War."

It is safe to say that the children of English, French, Italian, Japanese and American schools will each get a different historical concept of this war and of the relative importance of each of the allies in the winning of it. Already, we know the young folks of Italy and Japan will read a strongly partisan account of the struggle with a careless handling of the truth insofar as it might reflect upon their national ideals or tend to circumscribe their respective ambitions toward national expansion.

Of course, the pupils of the Gymnasias of Germany will learn in the coming decades of the terrible struggle for survival into which Germany was forced in 1914, and the cruel manner of carrying on the war adopted by the allies, forcing her in turn to adopt similar means. The deadly ruthlessness of German tactics as insidious, subtle and sinister as hell itself will be carefully hidden either through astute phraseology or entire omission where the former is impossible. Thus will be perpetuated a rancorous feeling based upon history that is tainted and perverted at the source, and many generations will pass by before Germany will have the courage or inclination to see her national shame, dishonor, and dastardliness as the mirror of truth now reveals it, in the reflection of her acts of abomination and desolation, to the eyes of a world still astounded, a year after the forced cessation of her infamous, perfidious and inhuman deeds.

To-day the forces of capital and labor are each marshalling their units in an economic struggle. The propaganda of each must be studied diligently and analyzed impartially before that which is historical matter is found. The truth regarding both sides should neither be diminished, exaggerated nor omitted. Accurate and full data are the basis upon which scientific generalizations may be reached in the social as well as the physical sciences.

Politically, we are the victims of national party propaganda every four years, and of state or local propaganda each succeeding day. From the latter there seems to be no respite. Wild stories of the ravages of Big Business smite us on one ear-drum while the other vibrates to the impassioned appeal to beware of Socialists and their ilk. There can be little history garnered from such ardent partisans. We must depend upon some one belonging to the non-combatant forces to give us the facts for posterity if we are to be fair to the latter.

There are too many men and women in society to-day who will deliberately and publicly lie to attain the personal ends they seek. To a degree this has always been the same. *Our duty* is to see that where this has been the case, such virus must not forever reproduce itself. We must not consciously or inadvertently be the instruments to perpetuate partisan untruths. But in order not to do so, we must broaden our own horizon and anesthetize our feelings where the truth does not coincide with our traditional prejudices. (Prejudice is here used in its larger sense as meaning prejudgment.) We must not be satisfied to teach but a single viewpoint taken from a single source. Neither must we take any history text as infallible. There is not a history taught in the high schools of our country to-day that is honest and truthful in all details, in the sense, that the basis of selection for the historical statements therein contained is founded upon what the author wishes most to emphasize, which too often is that which appeals to his bias, and supports in his mind judgments formed *a priori*.

A peculiar fact of psychology is involved in the theme in hand. History should be written by men having little partisan feeling, but unfortunately the fact of partisan passion leads men to write history to find expression for the very partisanship they feel, and thus it is that so much history is written as a brief for the case the writer feels it incumbent to uphold, while the pen of the unimpassioned hand remains idle.

In conclusion, then, let us resolve to teach the truth from whatever source it is available, for "Ye shall know the truth and the truth will make you free," is still a verity unchallenged. In our hands is the making of citizens whose citizenship must be intolerant of injustice, oppression, and prejudice. Let this age produce men whose ideas will light the way for a bigger and broader conception of the interrelationship that should prevail among the peoples of the earth.



## Concerning Historical (?) Portraits

BY MILLEDGE L. BONHAM, JR., HAMILTON COLLEGE.

Amongst the by-products of the World War is the widespread and growing realization of the importance of the study of history. Already some states are requiring public school pupils to take a course dealing with the antecedents, causes, events and results of the war. In the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for June, 1919, is a tentative report of the joint committee "On History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools," appointed by the American Historical Association, the National Education Association and the National Board for Historical Service. The discussion of this report at the Cleveland meeting of the American Historical Association last December revealed that while the profession is not yet ready to adopt all the suggestions of the committee, there is a profound conviction that history teaching must be extended and made more vital.

It is a most elementary truism that historical knowledge, to be useful, must be accurate. As already textbooks are being planned to meet the new conditions, it is germane to suggest one of the ways in which they can be made more accurate, with the view of giving their readers a realization of the actuality of the makers of history.

In his excellent work, "The Teaching of History" (page 218), Prof. Henry Johnson tells us of the pupil "who was asked if she could tell what sort of looking man Alexander the Great was. 'Why, no,' was the answer, 'I thought he was just one of those historical characters.'" When one examines some of the illustrations in school texts in history, one is not surprised at the attitude of this pupil. Rather, we want such illustrations as will produce the more definite idea expressed by another pupil, when her teacher asked, "What did Queen Elizabeth look like?" Gazing dreamily out of the window, the pupil replied, "She was very ugly; she had red hair." A snicker from the class recalled to her mind that the teacher's hair was reddish and his beard a decided red. Quick as a flash, she amended, "I mean she was ugly *in spite of* her red hair." Clearly, to her Queen Elizabeth was a real personality and not just "one of those historical characters."

Many school-room walls and too many otherwise good texts are adorned (?) with such pictures as the notorious "Washington Crossing the Delaware." If the child bothers to think about such an illustration at all, he must wonder how a man who had no better judgment than to stand upright in a small boat in a river full of floating ice on a windy night, brandishing a flag, had sense enough to plan and execute the Trenton-Princeton campaign. Unconsciously, the pupil derives from the sight of such pictures false ideas of history and of the important personages of the past. It is sufficient to recall that the Stars and Stripes were not adopted by Congress until June 14,

1777, six months after the crossing of the Delaware, though Washington had had as early as January, 1776, a headquarters flag of thirteen red and white stripes, with the Union Jack.<sup>1</sup>

The purpose of this paper is to urge publishers, editors and writers of textbooks to insist upon having accurate illustrations. And as the men and women of the past were its most important features, to have real portraits of them, or none at all. Particularly important is it that such pictures of historical personages be of a nature to impress upon the child that these were real, live, human beings, just like the people of to-day, in most respects. Unfortunately, for most of the important actors on the stage of history, previous to the invention of photography, the only accurate pictures are individual portraits, which tend to give an air of aloofness, of detachment from ordinary human interests. This leads to the putting of such people on a pedestal, and thinking of them as of a different clay from actual men and women, hence making history to that extent unreal.

That is unnecessary, for recent times, yet the habit remains. Take at random a recent text in American history, and open it at the period of the Spanish-American war. You will find full-page portraits of Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, General Miles, Admiral Dewey, etc. Somehow or other, there is about these pictures a haze of remoteness from everyday life. Perhaps the traits which most endeared McKinley and Roosevelt to the American people were those pertaining to the home circle—McKinley's devotion to his mother and wife, Roosevelt's eager participation in the life of his children. It would be so easy to secure good pictures of McKinley sitting on his porch with his loved ones. Far better than an individual portrait of Colonel Roosevelt of the Rough Riders, or a group of President Roosevelt and his cabinet would be a picture of Theodore Roosevelt playing with his children.

A recent Sunday paper contained in the magazine section just the sort of picture I have in mind. General Pershing is sitting in a friend's library, surrounded by and almost buried under children. It is evident that he and they are enjoying themselves and each other hugely. Of all the pictures of Pershing, that is *the* one and the *only* one that should go into the school books. Yet I fear me that we shall have a deluge of pictures of Pershing alone, in dress uniform, with that grim expression which boded so ill for the Boches. There is no room for argument as to which type of picture would give a child the better realization of Pershing as a man, and not a mere name on a page. It is evident, I think, that a little

<sup>1</sup> R. C. Ballard-Thurston, "The Origin and Evolution of the United States Flag," 6-12. (Published by National Society of Sons of American Revolution, Washington, 1915.)

intelligent effort on the part of authors and publishers, would enable them to secure "human interest" photographs of most important characters in the events of the last two or three generations.

I have found young people apt to put aside with a careless glance Madame Vigée LeBrun's portrait of Marie Antoinette, and spend some time gazing eagerly at the same artist's picture of herself and daughter. Queens are somewhat out of the ordinary circle of American boys and girls, but mothers and daughters they are familiar with and interested in. Similarly, a good photograph of Woodrow Wilson and Arthur Balfour playing golf would "function" infinitely better—as the psychologists say—than two full-page portraits of President Wilson and Foreign Minister Balfour. From the boys' standpoint an even better illustration would be a photograph of any recent President tossing the ball into the diamond at the opening of the baseball season. Governor Hughes, in the executive office at Albany, makes an impressive picture—for adults—and Supreme Court Justice Hughes in his robes a more impressive one. But if you want young people to believe that Hughes was a "regular fellow" and not an iceberg, show them the picture taken in the campaign of 1916, of Hughes

shaking hands with Ty Cobb, and then watch the reaction.

An anecdote—a true one, to my certain knowledge—showing the importance of care in the selection of illustrations, is the best conclusion for this gratuitous advice to the publishers. Virginia is a very live young person, indeed. She could easily occupy the entire attention of Argus himself. One rainy afternoon mother had to go out, and left grandmother to keep Virginia out of mischief. When mother returned, grandmother was on the verge of nervous prostration and the mantel clock as chaotic as Soviet Russia. Grandmother exclaimed, "My dear, Virginia has been simply awful, all the afternoon. She never touched a clock before, but to-day, she stopped looking at pictures, grabbed the clock and had it all to pieces before I could stop her." No one could imagine why Virginia should have been seized with this mania for clock dissection until father asked, "Has anyone seen my *Saturday Evening Post*?" "Here it is," said Virginia, retrieving it from under the lounge. Its colored cover represented a small boy exploring the interior of the mantel clock, while grandmother in the background held up her hands in holy horror.

## Supervised Study in History

BY EARLE U. RUGG, OAK PARK HIGH SCHOOL, OAK PARK, ILLINOIS.

### INTRODUCTION.

#### WHAT SUPERVISED STUDY MEANS.

"Among the types of organization that aim to emphasize education for the individual is the general plan known as Supervised Study. Direction of study takes place now and then in every school; but supervised study means much more than occasional direction offered to pupils who require assistance. Supervised study is a daily undertaking. Every period of the day is organized for the purpose of directing the details of the learning process. Studying is regarded as working on a job under the direction of the superintendent of the shop. The hours wasted in ignorant, haphazard, discouraging, and all too often unsuccessful home study are spent in class study where a wise teacher directs the learning of the new assignment and reduces to a minimum the difficulties encountered in mastering a topic or problem."<sup>1</sup>

#### VALUE OF SUPERVISED STUDY IN HISTORY.

It is the purpose of this paper on supervised history study to summarize and evaluate: 1. Psychological aspects of the problem of study. 2. General rules and directions for study. 3. Particular investigations in the field of supervised study in history. 4. The essential technique of this method as it relates to the

study of history. 5. Concrete testimony on the part of pupils who have used the method, and finally, 6. General conclusions that may be drawn as to the value and utility of the method. At the outset, if supervised study aids the "economy of time" movement by enabling students to do more and better work, it has distinct value. The curriculum maker is confronted with the problem of what should be included in the course of study. "Economy of time"<sup>2</sup> would include only that content in the course of study that functions in the needs of the child either in the school or in adult life. The problem of the teacher of history confronted with a vast amount of content of a complex nature is to show the student how to study history so that he can interpret life about him.<sup>3</sup> We know that history is essential to an understanding of modern problems, and also that it may possess recreatory value. However, the student must grasp the method before the subject will function in either respect noted. Sound habits of work, right attitudes towards one's work and methods of attack on problems are justifiable ends. Hence, if supervised study will help this outcome, it is the teacher's task to master the technique essential to its mastery.

<sup>2</sup> See reports of the Committee on Economy of Time. 14th, 16th, 17th Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part I of each.

<sup>3</sup> The interpretation of society is the major aim of history. "Making the World Socially Intelligible." Johnson, H., "Teaching of History," p. 269.

<sup>1</sup> Introductory paragraph quoted from Simpson, M. Supervised Study in History, p. 4. Written by the editor in an introductory chapter. (A. L. Hallquest, editor.)

## SUGGESTIONS ON TEACHING STUDENTS HOW TO STUDY.

Judd, in his "Psychology of the High School Subjects," presents some concrete suggestions on the problem of how to study. The remarks of Doctor Judd all point to the fundamental necessity of the technique of this subject being mastered by the teachers. He says that teachers at present have not been trained and are not equipped with the methods necessary to teach others how to study.<sup>4</sup> To discover the method for achieving this end one must first observe how students do their work. Such a plan, particularly where the teacher has an approximate idea of the time necessary to read an assignment, will enable her to check roughly the ability of the student to concentrate on the work. The relatively simple plan of counting at different times the number attentive of the total class is a quantitative method for ascertaining this.<sup>5</sup>

Let "a" equal the whole number in the class.

Let "b" equal the number attentive.

b

Then the ratio — — taken enough times in the

a

same class (over a period of two weeks, for example) is indicative of the amount of concentration.

The next phase is the discovery of the problem. On this Judd is emphatic that problems do not arise—they are *discovered*. As proof of the fact that pupils cannot now discover problems he asserts that the present plan of teaching simply makes the pupil a follower.<sup>6</sup> "Students are, in general, dominated by their teachers and by their textbooks, because these contain a great deal more information than the student can compass." It is obvious, under a system where the pupil is always struggling to keep up with the text and the teacher, that he has little time to discover problems. To offset this practice, the student should be impelled to ask new questions, because the formulation by the pupil of productive questioning is essential to an insight into any problem. Moreover, it involves self-activity on the part of the student. Furthermore, the problem must relate to the end or purpose in view. The author cited before in this paragraph states,<sup>7</sup> "If one is studying history, he ought to be interested not only in the event under examination, but he ought to look forward to some of the probable implications of the events." This latter implication will train one in comparisons and contrasts, and will make one critical of the progress of civilization. It will also give one definite conceptions of the complexities involved in the structure of society. Finally, one must set up standards of attainment and inculcate in the mind of the student the

thought that he himself has definite objective means of ascertaining his ability to progress. However, the curriculum must be rebuilt to make possible this progression. This involves a study of the mental ability of children on various levels of experience. Many of the misplacements of content are due to failure to understand what a child of a given age can grasp.<sup>8</sup>

## PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF THE PROBLEM OF HOW TO STUDY.

In respect to the psychology of study, Judd again emphasizes the teacher's part when he says,<sup>9</sup> "The reorganization of all of our courses . . . will be worked out when teachers see the importance of making a definite catalogue of the intellectual processes which students cultivate." He illustrates his meaning by the following plan of psychological progression. The first cycle would demand ability on the part of the child to comprehend a coherent narrative; the second, some type of correlation to obtain comparative and associative thinking, for example, the relation to geography; third, a critical evaluation of evidence; and as the final cycle, a critical comparison of the writers on a given period.<sup>10</sup> The present method of mixing these phases of progression, as well as failure to make provision for a presentation that really involves progress, makes the subject little understood by many students. This results in failure to retain subject matter, thus preventing the consequent widening of experience.<sup>11</sup>

There also is involved the problem of mental hygiene. The relationship of this to physical hygiene leads Judd to point out the importance of it thus:<sup>12</sup> "The student will find if he watches his own methods of study, that very frequently mental excitement is accompanied by a form of physical tension which is altogether unfavorable for his work. Anyone who has seen an eager student overworking in his efforts to get a lesson will realize that overwork consists in an abnormal tension of the muscles. Very frequently the facial muscles are so tense that the student is seen to be wearing himself out and expending his energies at an utterly unjustifiable rate. That student ought to be taught to relax. It is just as much a part of his intellectual training to learn to walk without so much physical friction as it is to remember the ideas which he is reading. In fact, he will never be able to remember ideas so long as he works at that physical tension." In this phase of the problem one must also

<sup>8</sup> In passing, it is worthy of note that experimental schools are demonstrating that the child in the lower grades can use material and content hitherto held too difficult for his grade of ability.

<sup>9</sup> Judd, p. 456.

<sup>10</sup> Judd, his plan of progression outlined, pp. 456-457.

<sup>11</sup> Objective evidence on this may be found in a discussion by the writer on the "Character and Value of Standardized Tests in History," reported at the spring conference of the University of Chicago, May, 1919. See *School Review*, December, 1919. Also, see *Journal Education Psychology*, May, 1917.

<sup>12</sup> Judd, p. 468.

<sup>4</sup> It is probable that much of the opposition to this movement comes from that group who cannot teach others how to study, even though good students themselves. Note, these suggestions are in the main taken from Chapter 18 of Judd, C. H., "Psychology of the High School Subjects."

<sup>5</sup> The author is indebted to Prof. H. C. Morrison for this plan.

<sup>6</sup> Judd, p. 446.

<sup>7</sup> Judd, p. 450.



guard against the dangers of overstimulation to work, the factor of abstraction, particularly outside engagements, and the individual capacity of the child. There ought to be conscious recognition of the principles of adjustment to individual differences in children, the true function of the course of study and the distribution of, as well as the limitations upon, human energy. Finally, it is essential that we aid those who are doing average or superior work quite as much as the class who are doing a low grade of work. Here supervised study will aid by giving one an intimate knowledge of uneconomical methods of study.

#### DIRECTIONS AND RULES OF STUDY.

Turning to the question of specific directions for study one finds numerous attempts to place in the hands of the students carefully drawn rules. The following excerpts are included as illustrative of what these cards contain.

Study-Program Card prepared by W. C. Reavis:<sup>13</sup>

1. Follow your program regularly.
2. If possible, study your lesson immediately after the assignment is made.
3. Take brief notes and afterwards study by outline.
4. Use dictionary and reference books for points not clearly comprehended.
5. Concentrate your mind so that outside interests will not frequently disturb your study.
6. \_\_\_\_\_.
7. Connect the important facts of the new lessons with facts previously learned.
8. Make comparisons and contrasts when possible.
9. Carefully review. . .
10. \_\_\_\_\_.

Study Helps, Monmouth Public Schools, Monmouth, Illinois:<sup>14</sup>

1. \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Provide yourself with material that the lesson requires.
3. Understand the lesson assignment. Take down accurately any references given by the teacher.
4. In the proper use of a textbook, the following devices will be found helpful: Index, appendix, footnotes, maps, illustrations, vocabularies. Therefore, understand the purpose of the devices above.
5. Sit down and begin work at once. Concentrate on your work.
6. \_\_\_\_\_.
7. Learn to work your own problems.
8. Try to put facts you are learning into practical use, if possible. Apply them to present-day conditions. Illustrate them in terms familiar to you.
9. \_\_\_\_\_.
10. \_\_\_\_\_.
11. Prepare each lesson every day.

<sup>13</sup> Reavis, W. C. "Importance of the Study Program for High School Pupils." *School Review*, June, 1911, Vol. 19, pp. 395-405.

<sup>14</sup> Used in Monmouth Schools. Copies obtainable by writing there.

Directions of G. E. Rickard for the Study of *History*:<sup>15</sup>

1. Learn thoroughly important dates.
2. Write out and pronounce all proper names. Try to connect each with some event or place.
3. Use maps, dictionaries and additional references.
4. Try to find cause for each event.
5. In comparisons and contrasts set down likenesses and differences point by point.
6. Ask yourself constantly what the most important events are and why.
7. Tell the story of the lesson to yourself.
8. Jot down a brief memorandum of the points of each lesson which you regard as important.

Study Plan in History. Miss Elizabeth Thorndike:<sup>16</sup>

1. First reading; for pleasure and general ideas.
2. Second reading; accompanied by the writing of a list of new names and memorization of all new names, dates and places.
3. Practice rapid sketching of maps and diagrams. (To place upon the blackboard.)
4. Make written outline of topics and important sub-topics. (To place upon the blackboard.)
5. Formulate three or four quiz questions.
6. Search for parallels and contrasts.
7. Select problem of the lesson.
8. Construct graphs, illustrations, main issues or problem. (To place upon the blackboard.)
9. Practice aloud, making "floor" talk or oral summary of the lesson.

Plan for Directed Study presented by Prof. R. M. Tryon:<sup>17</sup>

- I. Obtain an understanding of the child's study habits by analyzing replies to the following questions:
  1. How many times do you read the lesson?
  2. Do you use dictionary for new words?
  3. Do you locate new towns or countries upon the map?
  4. Do you ask yourself questions as to the lesson and try to answer them?
  5. Do you close your book and recite your lesson to yourself?
  6. Do you ever make a list of paragraph topics?
  7. Do you take notes on lessons unless required to?
  8. Do you use other books in addition to the text?
  9. Do you read the footnotes?
  10. When you are referred to some period previously mentioned, do you turn back and hunt it up?

<sup>15</sup> Rickard, G. E. M. A. Thesis, University of Chicago, School of Education, 1916, on "Supervised Study in History." List above quoted by Tryon in manuscript copy of his book on the "Teaching of History," p. 51.

<sup>16</sup> *Ohio History Teacher's Journal*, November, 1916, p. 112.

<sup>17</sup> The writer is under great obligation to Professor Tryon for permission to read and use part of the latter's chapter on "Supervised Study in History," taken from his "Teaching of History." Page citations are to manuscript copy, the book to be published soon by Ginn.



11. Do you underscore important words or sentences in your book?

12. Do you as a rule read the lesson once through before attempting to get the details?

II. Based upon a tabulation of these replies, the following plan is presented:<sup>18</sup>

1. Make a rapid survey of the material in your text on which the assignment is based. On concluding this preliminary survey you should have the main divisions clearly in mind.

2. Make a critical survey of the material of one division. . . . This should result in a clear idea of the main topics of the division.

3. Get the details that the text contains on each main topic in the first division. Relate these to the other topics and to the subject of the main division. Close your book and recite what you know as to the first main division.

4. Repeat numbers 2 and 3 with each main division.

5. When collateral reading is assigned on a main division apply the same procedure.

6. Repeat number 3 in mastering the collateral reading.

7. Tell the entire story to yourself and in order.

8. Review the previous lesson. Relate the present one to it.

Plan used by E. U. Rugg for directing study in his history classes in Oak Park High School, Ill. (taken from mimeographed sheets handed to students for their guidance. Summarized they involve):

I. What is History? Definition.

II. Value (its use, aims and outcomes. Writer gives the student these.)

III. Distinguishing various kinds of historical material (sources, texts, biography, maps, etc., and purpose and use of each).

IV. Outline of the main divisions of the course with important topics and problems arising under each).

V. Plan of the course.

1. Text assignment plus parallel reading daily.

2. Written work (summaries) checked daily.

3. Library work required (forty minutes daily).

4. Current topics based upon last issue of *The Independent*. One period a week.

5. Discussion as to form and content of notebook.

VI. Suggestion on How to Study History.

I. Assignment.

a. Take down accurately the problem or topic to be discussed, any suggestions on what to do, things to find out and questions to look up. Also the exact pages both in the text and in the outside reading.

b. Date these assignments and preserve in chronological order.

c. Be sure to get the assignments missed by ab-

sence. Such work is to be made up at a time and in manner approved by the teacher.

d. Students must read the text assignment plus at least *five* pages *daily* in reference or collateral reading to text assignment.

2. The Study Period (in library one period daily).

a. Read assignment in the text through rapidly.

b. Read parallel reading through carefully, seeking comparisons and contrasts with the opinions and point of view of the author of the text.

c. Summarize in half to one full page the salient features of the outside reading. This is to be in form to hand in.

d. Prepare outline based upon the reading in the text and the collateral reading. Seek mainly to amplify and fill in the mimeographed outline.

e. Put this written material in its proper place in notebook, and with books closed seek to answer questions raised in the assignment plus additional questions framed by yourself. Write out the answer to at least one of the questions. This is important to test the extent to which you have mastered this element. After such written exercises check up your answers carefully with your notes and the books to discover your shortcomings.

f. Look over your topical outline just before coming to class.

3. The Recitation.

a. Hand in at the beginning of the period your summary of the outside reading. (Your summary for the previous day will be returned to you. This latter should be placed immediately in its proper place in the notebook.)

b. You will be prepared daily to go to the blackboard for map location, drawing of diagrams or summarizing the topic of the day.

c. Each member of the class will be responsible for conducting the class from the floor on a given topic, either in the form of a summary of the topic followed by questions by all of the class or in the form of questions.

d. Members having special reports will first present on the board a brief summary of the report. This should include the name of the author and his initials, title of book, volume, and exact page citation. The class will note this summary in their notebooks. It will be checked up in the brief written quiz. The oral report based upon the outline will be given from the floor.

e. The main body of the recitation period will involve a discussion of the topic at issue; for this the text plus the outside reading will be drawn upon. You will be accountable individually for the text plus the book that you report to have read on that assignment.

f. At least once a week a brief ten-minute written quiz will be given, to test review work, re-

<sup>18</sup> Tryon, R. M. "The Teaching of History," manuscript copy, p. 53.

tention of special reports and general interpretation and comprehension of the period being studied.

- g. A written examination will be given on each of the main divisions.

#### 4. The Review Work.

- a. Frequent review is essential to an understanding of the work. You cannot expect to retain the great detail of the content discussed day by day.  
b. Hence, you should read over your outlines at least weekly, underlining most important points, in reality boiling down the daily outline to the important points. (Notebook will be looked over to see that this is done.)

#### 5. Things to be kept in mind in the work of this course.

- a. Work *must* be done and handed in *on time* to receive credit. Moreover, such work is the most important element entering into your grade.  
b. Careless work, slovenly papers, misspelling, etc., will lower the grade on that paper.  
c. Name and date must be on every paper. Unless this is observed the paper will receive no credit.  
d. Things to be stressed and emphasized throughout the course. Particularly must the student watch for these things in his preparation. (Note. These are not mere rules to be forgotten; they will be constantly used; you should be able to write out at any time the important things in the preparation of the lesson.)  
a. *Time sequence.* You should be able to locate historical topics, events and personages as to the time occurring within an approximate degree of accuracy.

(To do this you must constantly ask yourself),

*When did this happen?*

*When did he live?*

- b. *Place location.* You should be able to locate on a map every place referred to in your reading. If you can't find a particular place take means of tracing it down—use a big atlas, or ask some one.

(To do this you must constantly ask yourself),

*Where did this happen?*

- c. *Causal relationship.* You should constantly strive to see the relatedness of events, conditions and institutions.

(To do this you must constantly ask yourself),

*Why did this happen?*

*What effect was noticeable?*

*What was the result?*

- d. *Critical attitude.* You should be critical of things you read and hear. Learn to distinguish assertion, opinion and historical evidence.

(To do this you must constantly ask yourself),

*How do we know about this thing?*

*What are our sources of information?*

*Are they reliable?*

*Would they have any reason to give us the wrong version of the story?*

#### VII. Means that will be used to check your study habits—i.e., to see that you *follow* these directions.

##### 1. Observation.

- a. In the library. (Instructor supervising his students there.)

- b. Frequent study periods for a brief time in class.

##### 2. Looking over the daily readings, tests and notebooks.

3. Tests that check up your knowledge as to the various kinds of historical books, how to use them and your general ability to develop historical-mindedness—i.e., to grasp the development of society plus your critical attitude towards what you read and hear.

4. A term paper or essay to be prepared by you on some historical topic. (Further directions will be handed you soon.) This includes making a brief bibliography.

#### EVALUATION OF DIRECTIONS FOR STUDY.

The writer has gone into detail to illustrate what has been devised in the way of rules for directed study. Obviously such rules are futile unless definite means are taken to see that they are used. Constant supervision by the teacher is essential. In fact, even then such rules and directions may fail to function. In my own classes for that group who are indolent or not interested, and for a few that have not the capacity for the work, it is possible that such a plan does not work except in the way that it enables the teacher to single out these students, and take measures to meet their particular needs. On the other hand, the writer believes that the use of such rules or directions in his classes the past two years has been productive of much good for that rather large class of pupils of average ability or better who simply do not know how to attack a problem or who may use very uneconomical methods in their attempts to study history.<sup>19</sup> Therefore, if only a small group are the gainers, the expenditure of energy on the part of the teacher is not wasted because it is *our job to show students how to study.*

#### HOME INFLUENCES ON STUDY.

With our present type of school administration that makes impossible the use of the building for long study periods, crowded buildings and an overloaded curriculum, the child is forced to prepare at least part of his lessons at home. The value of such a practice

<sup>19</sup> A certain amount of tutoring students not in my own classes has demonstrated to me various uneconomical methods that they use in studying. For example, to most of them to have studied simply means to have read the lesson over once or more. Tests given in my classes on the power to distinguish kinds of books, uses of the index and table of contents, things to do in daily work and review show the value of the method described on pages 7-9.

may be well questioned, particularly in communities where necessarily home conditions are anything but good. Mr. W. C. Reavis, who has been cited before for his investigation on the problem of study, collected data as to the home conditions of 393 children. He obtained information as to the educational interests of the parents, moral atmosphere, and means for providing clothing, food, books, magazines, papers and entertainment. Homes were classified as to their quality—first, second or third. The children were also divided into three classes as to habits of study.<sup>20</sup> (See next page for chart.)

## Read vertically.

	Students from Homes of 1st Rank	Students from Homes of 2d Rank	Students from Homes of 3d Rank
Students having habits of study of first quality .	75%	32.4%	15.3%
Students having habits of study of second quality .....	19.7%	48.2%	40.7%
Students having habits of study of third quality.	5.3%	19.4%	44%
Total .....	100%	100%	100%

This table shows that students from the poorer homes in point of quality have poorer habits of study. The table below<sup>21</sup> shows that the students from homes of poorer quality tend to neglect the preparations of their lessons at home.

## Read horizontally.

	Homes of 1st Rank	Homes of 2d Rank	Homes of 3d Rank
Distribution of students doing assigned home study .....	38.5%	54.2%	7.3%
Distribution of students not doing assigned home study .....	4.1%	43.8%	52.1%

Mr. I. M. Allen, in his discussion of supervised study as operated in Springfield, Illinois, corroborates this study of Reavis when he says that the pupil needing supervised study most, comes from a home where it is not encouraged or made possible.<sup>22</sup>

## INVESTIGATIONS OF SUPERVISED STUDY IN HISTORY.

Mr. G. E. Rickard conducted an investigation of this character in Oakland, Indiana, and his conclusions, as well as a detailed description of his plan, are found in a thesis for the master's degree submitted by him to the School of Education of the University of Chicago, 1916. In his experiment he endeavored to get comparative results by using super-

vised study in one class in ancient history, and by pursuing the ordinary recitation type in another class in the same subject. After keeping close record for two months he concluded as follows:<sup>23</sup>

"1. On the second final examination (end of the second month) 7 of the supervised study group gained over the first examination (end of the first month) 123%, while 3 lost 32%, leaving 91% net gain, or 8.3% per pupil.

"2. Five of the recitation group gained 48%, while 3 lost 32%, leaving a gain of but 16%, or 1.5% per pupil.

"3. Comparing the second month's average with that of the first month, we find 8 of the supervised study group lost 64%, while 3 gained 38%, leaving a loss in comparison with the previous month of 26%, or 2.4% per pupil.

"4. In the same comparison of the first and the second month's work, we find 11 of the recitation group, lost 149%, or 13.5% per pupil. No pupil gained."

These statistics, though involving only a limited group of students, show that the tendency is for pupils enjoying the benefits of supervised study in history to achieve better results. Before any absolute conclusion can be drawn as to the comparative merits of each method there must be far more intensive investigation made into this problem. It should include schools from various sections of the country, and be based upon the performances of several thousand children. Unfortunately, this limited experiment of Rickard's is the only quantitative study made thus far in the field of history.

R. D. Armstrong, in an article called "Some Aspects of Supervised Study in History,"<sup>24</sup> claims to have a similar plan in Hammond, Indiana. He does not give us any quantitative evidence to prove the superiority of his plan. Rather is he concerned with a somewhat dogmatic and theoretical presentation of the problem and advantages of the method. The three problems to his mind are: 1. *How to motivate study.* This will be done by the teacher in the assignment. 2. *How the student shall study.* The problem method is his solution. 3. *How the teacher should teach the students to study.* To do this the students must master the technique of supervised study. It is not essential to include his details because they are similar to the directions for the study of history previously quoted. He points out in conclusion that the effectiveness of supervised study is dependent upon two factors: 1, the enthusiasm of the teacher; and 2, her ability to develop a technique. This latter is the hardest thing to do, and is, as Armstrong asserts, fundamental to the success of this method.

A detailed analysis of the supervised study movement in history is found in a book by Miss Mabel

<sup>20</sup> Reavis, W. C. "Factors that Determine the Habits of Grade Pupils." *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 12, pp. 71-78, quoted by Parker, S. C., "Methods of Teaching in the High Schools," p. 396.

<sup>21</sup> See Parker, S. C. "Methods of Teaching in the High Schools," p. 396.

<sup>22</sup> Allen, I. M. "Supervised Study," *School Review*, Vol. 25, p. 398.

<sup>23</sup> See his thesis in the *School of Education Library*, University of Chicago, p. 16.

<sup>24</sup> See *History Teacher's Magazine*, Vol. VIII, p. 52.



Simpson.<sup>25</sup> However, the book contains little scientific evidence on the subject, but consists almost entirely of various types of lesson plans which the author has carefully worked out and used in her classes in the Washington Junior High School, Rochester, New York. There are also many details included that deal with the organization and teaching of elementary history. It does not deal with the vital technique of supervised study. However, this is a fundamental weakness with all discussions in this subject. Hence, the inexperienced teacher—and we must postulate that kind of a teacher in the average community to-day—is helpless to use this method because she does not know how to direct others to study. This is a psychological problem, and that particular science must be utilized. Supervised study advocates to be successful in their efforts to introduce this plan must give the teacher who is to use it details as to how children learn. For example, they must show us sound methods of study, means by which we can economize effort in learning and devise instruments that will analyze the mental processes of the pupil.

#### NECESSITY FOR THE SETTING UP OF A THOROUGHGOING TECHNIQUE.

Rickard, hitherto cited, asserts that in history where it is difficult to obtain objective evidence as to the mental processes of the pupils, the first step is making a tabulation of the specific aims of history instruction. His list follows:<sup>26</sup>

##### A. To develop the pupil's ability to answer questions (based upon):

1. An acquisition of the proper concepts of new and technical terms.
2. A mastery of the subject matter of the text.
3. An interpretation of source material.
4. Ability to abstract collateral reading and connect it with the outlines of the text.

##### B. To develop the pupil's ability (to act by):

<sup>25</sup> Simpson, M. "Supervised Study in History," Macmillan, 1918.

<sup>26</sup> The following is included for purposes of comparison. It involves a survey of sixty books, magazine articles and courses of study plus two elaborate question blank investigations. Table 1 (the general summary is alone quoted). Note, the figures indicate the number of the total—sixty—that mention that class.

a. Facts, acquisition of knowledge .....	18
b. Use of books, training in methods of study .....	22
c. Training sympathy, judgment, memory, imagination, discrimination .....	14
d. Inculcation of patriotism, nationalism and ideals ..	17
e. Broadening the pupil's point of view .....	28
f. Training in seeing causal relationships, an appreciation of the past and the present .....	17
g. Unclassified .....	31

Based upon these, I would assert the aims to be: 1, to develop sound habits of work; 2, to make the world socially intelligible; 3, to develop ability to express oneself; 4, to train and use judgment, imagination and organized ideas; 5, to stimulate ideals of right moral conduct. These are tentative until experimentation proves them to be sound.

1. Arranging logical outlines and abstracts of the subject matter.

2. Arranging tabulations of time sequences of events and persons grouped according to some convenient unit, as a decade or century.

3. Drawing maps which shall more or less closely approximate some ideal which the instructor has previously analyzed into its elements.

4. Collecting material of a given type, organizing it logically, citing references and preparing bibliographies.<sup>27</sup>

Parker, who quotes Rickard's aims, states that the next step after specific aims are set up, is to devise concrete methods for checking progress. Here one must keep the student active mentally, and yet not help him too much. Here, again, is where the teacher is likely to err, but it is a phase of the technique that must be mastered if effective supervised study is to be the result.

The writer next presents a summary outline of the technique essential to supervised study in history as stated by Professor Tryon.<sup>28</sup>

#### I. Preliminary work.

1. Planning as to the six or eight main divisions of the course, dates to be learned, personages to be discussed, maps to make, best books in the field for use as parallel reading.

2. Dividing these units into topics.

3. Determining outlines, charts, diagrams, themes to be done in detail.

4. Formulating rules with the class as to how to do it.

5. Seeing to equipment; that maps, books, etc., essential to the prosecution of the work are purchased and available.

#### II. Teacher's work when supervised study is under way.

1. Making clear to the student work to be done.

2. Keeping those directions constantly before the class.

3. Inspecting work as to

- a. Progress.
- b. Difficulties.
- c. Method of study.
- d. Materials.
- e. Results achieved.
- f. Effort.
- g. Errors.

4. Special aids to each pupil.

- a. Checking mistakes.
- b. Suggestions, additional devices, methods and references particularly suited to the individual pupil.
- c. Stimulating initiative in filling in outline.
- d. Guidance in how to make outline.
- e. Encouraging the constant use of equipment.
- f. Hearing individual recitations of pupils in difficulty.

<sup>27</sup> Parker, S. C. "Method of Teaching in the High Schools," pp. 412-13.

<sup>28</sup> Tryon, R. M. "The Teaching of History," pp. 57-60.



### III. Work of the pupil when supervised study is under way.

1. Reading texts and reference books.
2. Name over things, events, etc., specifically designated as worth remembering.
3. Filling in outline maps, making diagrams, charts, organizing ideas, outlining text and reference material, writing themes.
4. Applying directions for study.<sup>29</sup>
  - I. On the part of the teacher.
    1. Ten-minute quizzes
    2. Definite assignments (questions, problems and topics).
    3. Assisting individual pupil as to text, sources and collateral reading.
    4. Assisting individual pupil in how to do such things as outline, make maps, notebook work.
  - II. On the part of the pupil.
    1. Writing ten-minute quizzes.
    2. Making memorandum of the assignment.
    3. Study under the teacher if in difficulty as to No. I, 3 and 4.
    4. Independent work with the tools necessary, such as pencil, paper, maps, etc.

To summarize the question of technique one may well quote Parker's remarks, "A special technique of supervised study should include skill in determining the direction of progress being made by students while they are studying, and skill in stimulating and aiding this progress by means of questions and suggestions without assisting too much."<sup>30</sup>

#### TESTIMONY OF PUPILS AS TO BENEFITS OF SUPERVISED STUDY IN HISTORY.<sup>31</sup>

A few of the opinions of the students themselves on the value and use of this method seem worth quoting.

1. We have definite time for review, assignment and study.
2. More is accomplished in less time.
3. It is more practical.
4. I have learned how to use a book.
5. It teaches pupils to ask questions.
6. We learn how to study.
7. It makes the work easier.
8. It saves home work.

#### GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

This paper has discussed the psychological aspects of supervised study, general directions and rules for study, the few investigations in the field of history on supervised study, and the technique developed by the specialist in order to make supervised study vital. All teachers are interested in how to create effective study habits with their pupils. The little objective data that we now possess would seem to indicate that supervised study for history is a method that will produce efficient study habits. It is known that we do

not get one hundred per cent. efficiency from the student under our present plan of presentation. Therefore, the teacher of history should try out, at least, this method of supervised study because it promises better results in this subject.

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"A Byzantine Blue-Stocking, Anna Commena," by William Miller (*Quarterly Review* for January, 1920), is the title of an interesting article, in which the author says: "It must not be imagined that Anna Commena, because she wrote like a princess and a daughter, was not a valuable historian. She had first-hand knowledge of a large part of her father's reign, and, as she tells us, she drew her information about events of which she had not been an eye-witness, from her father's fellow-comrades in the war."

#### ANNOUNCEMENT.

The annual meeting of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland will be held at Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., Friday and Saturday, May 7 and 8, 1920. The program will include a discussion of the proposed new course of study in history and civics. On Saturday afternoon, under the leadership of the Northampton County Historical Society, an automobile trip will be made to historical points in the vicinity of Easton.

<sup>29</sup> Rickard suggests the following procedure of technique.

<sup>30</sup> Parker. Book cited before, p. 391.

<sup>31</sup> Summarized page 6 of Simpson, M. "Supervised Study in History." (Taken from actual quotations written by the students themselves.)

## Department of Social Studies

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#### THE NEW DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION.

BY THOMAS M. BALLIET.

Democracy is not merely a form of government; it is a mode of life. It is essentially personal freedom, or liberty under law. Politically, it is government directly by the people, or representative government responsible to the people. It means, in the latter case, government whose sole power is delegated to it by the governed, and can be taken from it by them. It is responsible power.

Political democracy means equality in some respects and inequality in others. The "equality" spoken of in the preamble to the Declaration of Independence is clearly limited by the context. Democracy means equality before the law and equal rights of suffrage, or "one man one vote." It does not mean equality of political influence, for that depends not merely on suffrage, but also on native ability, education, experience and character, in all of which men and women are unequal.

The opposite of democracy is autocracy, or government without the consent of the governed. Democracy is responsible government, autocracy is irresponsible government, or in the words of Pope, "The right divine of kings to govern wrong."

The difference between democracy and autocracy does not consist, as is popularly assumed, in the degree of power exercised by the government, but in the fact that the power of the one is responsible, and that of the other is irresponsible; the power of the one is delegated to it by the governed, and can be taken away by them, while the power of the other is entirely beyond their control. It is this fact, and not the degree of power, which makes autocracy dangerous. An American President may, in the crisis of a great war, be given more power than any monarch in Europe, as was the case in the recent war, and yet he does not become an autocrat. Unity of command and concentration of power and responsibility are essential to efficiency in a great crisis. It has been said that democracy may be the best form of government in peace, but that it is inefficient in war. On the contrary, just because in a democracy it is safe to give the government almost unlimited power since it can be taken away again, democracy can be made also the most efficient government in war.

In the light of these distinctions, what is the new

democracy, or what are the new forms of democracy with which we are confronted, and for the right solution of whose perplexing problems we must make provision in education? The establishment of democracy historically has always meant, in modern times at least, the abolition of some form of autocracy.

The new democracy is primarily economic democracy, and aims to abolish economic autocracy. There is a small group of men in this country who own the coal mines and dictate to over a hundred million supposedly free Americans, what they must pay for coal. There is another small group in the Middle West who dictate to the farmer what he may receive for cattle on the hoof, and to over a hundred million fellow-citizens what they must pay for dressed beef. There are other groups who dictate to the rest of us the price of lumber, the price of shoes, of many foodstuffs, and of clothing. There have been still others who have controlled capital and financial credit, and have looted and ruined railroads at will, under private ownership, to line their own pockets. We are all familiar with these conditions, but we do not always realize the essentially autocratic power behind them. It is a form of autocracy as intolerable as the political autocracy which we abolished over a century ago, and which by the recent war was abolished in continental Europe.

This form of autocracy is essentially the autocracy of the capitalist, and of the employer. But to-day we are threatened with an equally dangerous new type of autocracy, the autocracy of labor. And this autocracy has recently taken the criminal form of Bolshevism, communism, and I. W. W.-ism, which proposes to confiscate property, overthrow constitutional government by physical force, and virtually destroy political liberty as the world has hitherto known it.

These are the two forms of autocracy which are threatening free institutions to-day and against which society must find means to protect itself. With universal suffrage, the people have in their hands the power of remedying these evils by the preferable legal processes, which the Constitution prescribes, and by peaceful means. Therefore, the whole power of the government must be used against those who would bring about changes by physical force and violation of the law.

The new democracy aims to change these economic conditions by legal and peaceful means through a process of normal evolution and not revolution; and education in all grades of schools from the elementary

schools to the university must provide the necessary training to fit men and women to solve its problems.

Virtually all our so-called political problems are either purely economic or rest on an economic basis. One needs only to think of such problems as those of the railroads, their ownership and control; the problems of the control of money and credit; the problems of the control of monopolies; the problems of taxation, and the effect of different forms of taxation upon the masses of the people, to realize the type of problems which confront us.

Besides these, many of our so-called political problems are social problems which again ultimately rest on an economic basis. Of these, hours of labor for men, for women, and for children; the housing of the people; public health; wages and living conditions; immigration; education in its broadest aspects, suggest the type.

Furthermore, all economic and all social conditions have ethical implications which are to-day universally recognized. The prevalent widespread unrest is not merely either economic or social, it is decidedly ethical. Men are discontented not so much with their economic conditions as such, but with the injustice of these conditions. They do not merely ask for higher wages, but for conditions which will not wound their self-respect as men. A certain capitalist not many years ago was in the habit of saying, "We buy our labor as we buy our raw material—in the cheapest market." This brutal attitude towards workmen has considerably changed, and far-sighted employers realize that the man must be placed above the dollar.

Briefly stated, it is obvious that to solve these problems we must have a new type of training for citizenship in our secondary schools and in our colleges and professional schools. The study of the federal constitution and of the state constitution throws little light on these problems. What is needed is the introduction into every type of school above the elementary, of economics, sociology and ethics as compulsory studies for all students of both sexes. This is rapidly becoming recognized by progressive teachers in high schools and in colleges.

Besides these studies, modern European history, at least from the beginning of the French Revolution, should be made a compulsory study in all secondary schools.

### SOCIOLOGY IN A RURAL HIGH SCHOOL.

BY A. B. BUKER, ROSEWOOD, OHIO.

Until a few years ago, the Rosewood High School, like most other rural high schools—and, it is only fair to say, most city high schools as well—offered the regulation courses in English, mathematics, the languages and science. Except for history and old-style civics, what are now known as social studies had no place. But within a few years several important changes have been made. First, economics was

offered as a substitute for either Latin or German. For a considerable group of students, this at once became a popular subject. It was the means of keeping some in school who otherwise would have quit. The subject matter was, of course, adapted to rural conditions and the students found that problems were considered in which they had a practical interest.

Such was the success of the course that after two years' experience a further change in the curriculum was suggested. There seemed to be a particular need for a course in distinctly rural sociology. Many of the pupils, as well as their parents, were, it was clear, lacking in an appreciation of the many good things in their community life. A wider knowledge of social conditions would help to make them better satisfied with their own lot and stimulate them to improve it.

The first problem to arise in connection with the establishment of this course was the provision of a suitable text. A careful search revealed only one—Gillette's "Constructive Rural Sociology." This, it was true, treated the subject from the standpoint of the rural community. But it was written for universities, colleges and normal schools, and the presumption was that it would be too difficult. Many high school texts, however, it was regretfully remembered, are merely boiled-down college texts anyway, and it might be possible to do the boiling in the class itself. The plan and subject matter of the book certainly fitted the needs of the class better than any other text examined. But a year's trial proved what had been suspected from the first—that the book was far too difficult to be used as a whole, and that the method of selected sections did not have any very satisfactory results.

Last year an entirely different plan was tried. The book itself, so far as the pupils were concerned, was definitely set aside, but the topics treated in the book still formed the subject matter considered. It was explained to the class that the text available had not been written for high school use; that as far as could be learned, no such textbook had yet been written. Then it was suggested that the class write its own text. Intense interest was at once manifested. A few of the students were inclined to doubt the practicability of such an innovation, but after a frank discussion in which nearly all participated, the class unanimously voted to try the experiment.

Since the school is in session thirty-two weeks in the year, it was decided to write sixteen chapters, or one every two weeks. An outline of the whole course was first prepared. This included the necessary introduction, a description of the general scheme and an enumeration of the principal topics to be treated. As each topic was taken up for consideration it was outlined by the teacher and students working together, and this outline placed upon the blackboard. Each item in the outline was then discussed freely and thoroughly. The members of the class contributed what seemed to them significant. The teacher took especial care that no important point was omitted,



either in outline or discussion. The fundamental principles which justify the application of the term science to these studies were not neglected. Too often a method of the sort outlined leads to a mere debating society for the exchange of ignorant opinion. A forty-five minute period each day for a week was thus used in the discussion of the subject matter of each chapter. As has been said, there was no text, but the pupils were encouraged to present anything they could find in reference books, and, with caution, in newspapers, farm journals and magazines. It was suggested that they talk the problems over with others and so discover additional points. The following week the time was used in writing on the subject which had been discussed. Each pupil used the same outline, but presented his own conclusions in his own words and style. These papers were not called compositions, themes, or essays, but chapters in a new book on rural sociology.

The success of the first chapter was a revelation. There were twenty-two in the class, and though all had heard the same discussion and all used precisely the same outline, in reality twenty-two different chapters were written. Each had written not only on what had most appealed to him during the discussions, but in many instances had contributed something entirely original as well as pertinent which had come into his mind after reflection on the problem.

Among the subjects from which the greatest benefit was derived were types of rural communities, the causes of migration from country to city, advantages and disadvantages of farm life, social aspects of tenant farming, rural health and sanitation, consolidation of schools and churches. In each chapter the start was made with the home community, and the life of other communities was studied in comparison. It was soon learned that the more knowledge of local conditions the student possessed, the better could he understand other types of rural communities as well as urban centers. Great emphasis was laid upon the influence and interdependence of community upon community. No community can live unto itself alone. It was shown that a progressive school district is often the means of raising the social standards of an entire county. As the Rosewood district was the first in its part of Ohio to bring about complete consolidation of schools, and was contributing quite liberally to several charitable institutions, the students developed a new feeling of pride in the activities with which they were directly concerned. In the work which was undertaken in behalf of the government during the war they came to have a better realization of what one little neighborhood may do toward helping to change conditions all over the world.

During the year, each pupil wrote sixteen chapters, as was planned in the beginning. This was done even though the school was closed seven weeks on account of influenza, so interested was each student in completing his "book." The chapters averaged about 1,000 words. Each pupil had then at the end of the year a little booklet of from sixty to one hundred

pages. There was nothing startling or extraordinary about what they wrote or the manner and style in which it was written. But the booklets had a simple directness about them that showed a clear understanding of such aspects of the subject as it had been possible to consider.

In looking back over the year's work the question arises, "Why did this course prove so interesting and successful?" The novelty? Yes, partly. But there were other reasons.

1. The course began at home, both mentally and geographically, in the pupil's mind and in the home town.
2. In consideration of larger social problems, an attempt was always made to relate these problems to the local situation. The responsibilities of the local unit to other units and of other units to the local unit was carefully considered.
3. The custom of a forty-five-minute recitation at a certain time each day was not altogether followed. There were days and days when cut-and-dried class exercises were omitted, and the pupils spent the time devoted to this class in thinking and writing.
4. The pupils discovered that, collectively, they had a great store of valuable information. Some had lived in other rural communities, some in other states, and some in cities. Some had worked on farms, some in shops, and some at trades. This gave them an opportunity to help each other.
5. For the first time in their lives, they became well acquainted with their own social problems.
6. They gained confidence in their own power to do things.

The results of the work are not only pleasing to look back upon; they are being realized more and more as time goes on. Those of the class who were seniors last year are now out of school, but the juniors—seniors now—are taking economics and history and civics. In the latter, much the same plan is being pursued as has been described, except that the time is divided between writing and talking from outlines. And the remark, so frequently made by high school students when asked to write a theme or give a talk, "I can't do that," is never heard. Their attitude is rather, "Sure I can. Didn't I write a book on sociology last year?"

The study of *rural sociology* is most heartily recommended in all farming communities. No course offered in the high school goes so far toward giving country boys and girls a wholesome respect for the big job of furnishing food and clothing to the world—and now and then a man big enough to solve the most difficult problems of life. Neither is there a subject offered that supplies a more vivid picture of the work which lies just ahead. Emerging from the schools with this preparation, they can enter more fully into the life of their community and of the larger commonwealth of which it is a part.

## INVENTIVE GENIUS AND SOCIETY.

BY H. H. M.

Graham Wallas, of the University of London, author of "The Great Society" and "Human Nature in Politics," has written an article entitled, "The Price of Intolerance," appearing in the January issue of the *Atlantic Monthly*, which should interest all educators. At one time Mr. Wallas was a member of the London County Council; he has served on several Royal Commissions, and his reputation in the fields of government and economics is international.

As the size of the industrial unit constantly increases, says Mr. Wallas, as the chances of a workman setting up a business of his own constantly diminish, as the prospects of breaking up the larger industrial units are abandoned, and as the mutual suspicion of employers and employees grows, the need of an open and free discussion of the problems of industry becomes more and more insistent.

The problems before us now obviously cannot be solved by any existing political or economic expedient. They require the patient invention of new measures. Discussion, therefore, must not only be permitted, but encouraged among those now engaged in industry, and also, he suggests, in our educational institutions.

A newspaper does not furnish a forum for public discussion. It does not even represent the serious independent thought of the writer. A telephone conversation from a distant "boss" to the editor too frequently determines the paper's attitude toward a political or economic question. Adequate means of discussion in industry, and in educational institutions also, have not been developed. The worker needs convenient meeting places available at reasonable expense. Society in general needs a body of scientists in the fields of politics, economics, and sociology who can pursue research work with adequate salaries, and with freedom of thought and expression. Such a body of scientists will not be available, Graham Wallas would doubtless agree, until more attention is given to these subjects in the secondary schools. Now the natural sciences almost monopolize the scientific interests of students.

Mr. Wallas reviewed in 1915 for the *Harvard Quarterly Journal of Economics* an extraordinary book, "Imperial Germany," by Thorstein Veblen. During the war this book was suggested by the government as anti-German propaganda. But some months previously, the Postmaster General had forbidden its transmission by mail! Mr. Wallas suggests with rare courtesy that we Americans have been incredibly stupid in our censorship of serious, sincere thought.

We recognize genius in chemistry, medicine and engineering. Said one examiner at Cambridge to another when William Thomson (afterward Lord Kelvin) won the Smith Prize for mathematics: "You and I are just about fit to black young Thomson's boots." But political science, says Mr. Wallas, because it deals with human beings, necessarily arouses human passions, and when a political genius of the ability of

a Bentham extends his thinking in the spirit of science to include every man, woman and child, whom a proposed political or social measure affects, he becomes "dangerous" in the minds of those who think in terms of a class.

Some American leaders in industry and finance who would never dream of employing timid and conventional chemists or engineers, do not yet see the importance of utilizing inventive genius in dealing with the perplexing problems of our present complex civilization. The question is, do educators recognize the importance of producing students who will demand the application of the scientific method to the problems of social organization?

## IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL STUDIES.

## A COURSE IN COMMUNITY CIVICS.

There is wide variety in the character of high school civics courses. In the past they have usually been concerned entirely with the mechanism and methods of government. But to-day, as in other subjects, the trend of teaching is toward the social viewpoint, with emphasis on the effort of the community to solve its social and economic problems.

An interesting course in community civics of the more enlightened type is conducted in the Central High School, Springfield, Massachusetts, by Miss Jessie M. Law. The content of this course, Miss Law writes, is left in a fluid state so as to keep pace with the demands of the time. The subjects considered are developing so rapidly it is impossible to formulate any comprehensive outline which may be used from year to year. New problems and new solutions are constantly arising.

This course is directed particularly toward serving the needs of the children of Springfield. The development of community life is studied in the history of Springfield itself. The various public agencies concerning themselves with health, the schools, and the care of the unfortunate are described as they are found there. This material is not available in any text. In fact, the course in community civics uses no text, but depends upon public reports, newspapers, lectures by outsiders, and individual observation, always supplemented by the teacher's insistence on fundamental principles.

After this course, a second half year in social economics is offered. This is particularly designed to interest the boys who have no inclination toward college preparation, and are undecided whether to stay in school or go to work. Here the more familiar texts are used, Burch and Nearing's "Economics," Towne's "Social Problems," and Ashley's "New Civics." Discussions center on such topics as wages, capital, labor, and poverty. In the class-room, Miss Law states, two aims are kept in view by the teacher and out of view of the pupil—to create interest and to instil a sane American point of view.

For the community civics course, Miss Law has prepared a series of subject outlines. They concern such topics as transportation and communication, Springfield's care for the health of her citizens, poverty and the unfortunate, recreation, and schools. For each of these topics a few reading references are given with a series of from twenty to forty suggestive questions. For instance, under recreation, the following are among the questions asked:

Why did old Springfield have few parks?

How does the Massachusetts law insist upon a chance for her people to play?

Springfield's park department costs about \$150,000 each year. Does it pay?

What is done at the schoolhouse centers? How do they save money? How do they help morals? What more could be done there?

Which reveals a person's character more—how he works, or how he spends his leisure?

These outlines are extremely interesting and instructive. They indicate the necessity of adapting a course in civics to the community concerned. The students who pass through this course of study will enter into the life of Springfield with a fuller knowledge and clearer understanding of what their citizenship involves.

No recent book has excited more comment and discussion than "The Economic Consequences of the Peace," by John Maynard Keynes. Mr. Keynes represented the British Treasury at the Peace Conference, and speaks with an intimate knowledge of what transpired there. His book is, on the whole, thoroughly discouraging. No one can read it without feeling that our civilization wavers on the very brink of overwhelming disaster. But in almost the last page he strikes this more hopeful note:

"The events of the coming year will not be shaped by the deliberate acts of statesmen, but by the hidden currents, flowing continually beneath the surface of political history of which no one can predict the outcome. In one way only can we influence these hidden currents—by setting in motion those forces of instruction and imagination which change opinion."

In the predicament into which five years and more of unprecedented turmoil have cast our western civilization, there is one avenue of escape, and one only. By education in the principles and laws which underlie our social and economic organization, public opinion may yet be moulded in a way to meet intelligently the manifold and complex problems of this new period of reconstruction. Education in citizenship is the solution. There is no other.

In a previous number of the HISTORICAL OUTLOOK it was reported that Montana was preparing a syllabus on social studies for use in schools throughout the state. That this movement is extending throughout the country is shown by the fact that a similar committee has been formed in Pennsylvania. This com-

mittee is preparing a plan which will cover the full twelve years of school life. The National Committee for Teaching Citizenship hopes to bring this development to the attention of all State Departments of Education. Other states have already taken this step. The rest will soon be brought into line.

A suggestion in which teachers of social studies will be interested is made by Truman L. Kelly in a letter to *School and Society*, published in the issue of February 21, 1920. He proposes that high school mathematics include some discussion of elementary statistics. These statistics will necessarily concern such questions as health, distribution of wealth, and industrial conditions. In itself, a consideration of these subjects is a socializing influence. In addition, Mr. Kelly declares: "The basic ideas in statistics are naturally comprehensible to the high school level of intelligence." From the data which is used, it will be possible to proceed to an understanding of the underlying principles. These principles will serve very effectively as the basis of an intelligent and critical attitude toward the problems of society.

Suggest this to the mathematics teachers in your school!

"Sin and Society," by Prof. Edward Ainsworth Ross, was published some years before the war. This extract, however, is none the less applicable to-day:

"In a national war the common peril hushes petty discords and attunes differing men to harmonious efforts. *But to-day is war time.* Our assailants are none the less formidable because they grew up among us and walk the same streets. While the wizards of smokeless powder and submarine boat have been making us secure against alien foes, we have grown into an organic society in which the welfare of all is at the mercy of each. The supreme task of the hour is to get together and build a rampart of moral standard, statute, inspection, and publicity to check the onslaught of internal enemies."

In the *Survey* of February 7, 1920, Calvin C. Thomason has an interesting article entitled, "Applied Patriotism: Teaching Citizenship through Social Problems."

This is a description of the course which Mr. Thomason conducted for a number of years in the James John High School, Portland, Oregon. Its particular interest lies in the fact that practical training in parliamentary technique was provided, as well as instruction in the problems which the citizen must face. The class was entirely taken over by the students. Twelve topics covering practical social problems, such as immigration, women in industry, and poverty, to be found in any city, were chosen, and a presiding officer, secretary, and librarian appointed to officiate while each of these problems was being discussed. The teacher acted as a regular member of the group, participating in the discussion, assisting



backward pupils, and bolstering up the presiding officer with advice on parliamentary law. Resolutions on the various topics were introduced and debated with much interest by the pupils. It was sometimes possible to secure an outside speaker who furnished the pupils with practical information as to what was being done in their community.

At the end of the year a community institute was held. This consisted of two sessions, at which brief speeches were made by the various pupils. Much interest was manifested by outsiders in the work which had been done.

Mr. Thomason finds four definite results achieved by the course conducted in the way described. First, by providing information an intelligent attitude toward social problems was created. Second, the experience gained developed a willingness on the part of the students to attack these problems. Third, leadership was encouraged by giving responsibility. Fourth, the hidden enemies of society who are often more dangerous than those whose habits are known were revealed. The attainment of these objectives gave this course a practical value in the lives of all those who were fortunate enough to take it.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

STEPHENSON, G. M. *Political History of the Public Lands from 1840 to 1862*. Boston: Badger Press, 1917. Pp. 296. \$2.50.

This book is a continuation of R. G. Wellington's "The Political and Sectional Influence of the Public Lands, 1828-1842," both studies emerging from Professor Turner's seminary. Its objects are "to trace the history of the public land legislation in Congress, to portray the sentiment of the different sections of the country relative to the disposal of the public domain, and to estimate the influence of the public lands on the political and legislative situation in general." These aims the author has pursued with an accuracy of scholarship and a poise, which raise his work above the level of a doctoral monograph, and he presents his results in pleasing English.

The difference of interest between the western states containing public lands and those without them could well have been more emphasized, and, in view of the attention given to Calhoun, the differing arrangements with regard to public lands discussed with Texas, should have been at least mentioned. Still for the work of Doctor Stephenson one can find but praise, and it gives high confidence of achievement for the future.

It remains a question to the reviewer whether the objects, or at any rate, the last object, expressed in the preface are presentable by any student, however mature. To unravel one thread in the mesh of interests that constituted the national economic and social problem of the middle period, to assess its strength as compared with that of limiting conditions like sectionalism; to contrast the sectionalism of physiographic regions with that of social institutions, and with the complex of interests and compromises that made up parties and party politics, is something no man could

have done at the time by analyzing the motives of his own conduct.

That the student should attempt it in his own mind goes without saying, but it is a question whether his thought can be made definite enough for presentation without becoming more definite than the truth. An illustration of the dangers involved is given in the following paragraph, in which the writer's point of view completely changes in the eye of the reader: "The accompanying maps show that the real sectional fight was over the twenty per cent. proviso. Not a single one of the twenty-eight affirmative votes on the final passage of the bill were Democrats, and but one Whig was found among the negatives. It was a strict party vote."

It is evident that while Doctor Stephenson expected to find sectionalism the controlling factor, he actually found parties the stronger, and has the honesty to report it; the facts with regard to the land problem are valuable; the interpretation must come from a synthesis which combines these facts with similar ones relating to many other subjects, and a study of many individuals.

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

WARD, SIR ADOLPHUS WILLIAM. *Germany, 1815-1890*. Vol. III, 1871-1890, with Two Supplementary Chapters. Cambridge: University Press, 1918. Pp. xvi, 437. \$3.75.

This volume, by one of the foremost English historical scholars, written during the darkest period of the Great War, is an achievement in the objective and dispassionate writing of history, for there is scarcely a word to betray the stress under which it was done. It must be insisted, however, that objectivity does not justify a style so drearily monotonous or so provokingly involved and difficult of comprehension. The master of an English college no doubt has the ability and the right to combine information on two or more utterly unrelated subjects in a single concept, but he has no right to impose on his reader the mental gymnastics necessary to disentangle the meaning thereof when compressed in a single sentence. Clarity of style and precision of statement are just as essential to good historical writing as are adherence to fact and absence of bias. Doughty, indeed, will be the reader who persists in his endeavor to the ultimate page of this unilluminating compilation of material.

The contents of the volume fall into three parts: The first five chapters, 180 pages, contain the general narrative from 1871 to 1890; the sixth chapter, 125 pages, gives a survey of German social and intellectual life in the latter half of the nineteenth century; and the two supplementary chapters, over 90 pages, give a synopsis of events from 1890 to 1907. The treatment of the Bismarck regime is comprehensive in its inclusion of events, but is entirely centered around the great chancellor. The growth of parties and the positions and activities of the principal leaders are set forth with some fulness. On the other hand, there is all too slight attempt made to understand the conditions and development of the people and relate them to the political acts; for example, there is little effort to show the conditions which premised the social reforms on the one hand and the growth of the social democratic party on the other. The account of the Congress of Berlin illustrates the characteristic inadequacy of consideration of the position and policies of other nations in international affairs. Throughout the book the author flatters his reader by assuming in him a larger knowledge of the period than is imparted in the narrative. Few readers, however, are so fortunate as to possess the necessary knowledge to derive

much profit from reading such sections as those on the Kulturkampf or on the educational legislation.

The paragraphs in the sixth chapter on the Tübingen school, which may be selected as typical of the chapter, contain many facts, but leave the reader utterly bewildered as to the character or significance of that school. The two supplementary chapters are rather better written, though even more succinct in selection and presentation of material than the earlier chapters. The author is somewhat too prone to inject the fact of his having read Naumann, Rohrbach, Reventlow, and other wartime exponents of Pan-germanism. He seems inclined to the thesis that Bismarck would have pursued a policy different from that of William II and his later chancellors, and would not have plunged Germany into the World War. He considers the year 1907 as transitional in German policy, and arrests his narrative at that date. In this judgment and action he is, perhaps, correct, though the result seems to be an underestimate of the significance of several matters which fall within the scope of his account. In general, he takes a not unfavorable view of German policy prior to 1907, except in the case of The Hague conferences, and even there he is inclined to extenuate the German attitude.

The bibliography is unsatisfactory in both method and content, and its omissions apparently correspond to certain shortcomings in the text. To illustrate, divergent statements concerning the German element in the United States appear on pages 184 and 387, and the note on the former page refers to Oncken's essay, but there is no reference to Professor Faust's thorough work on the "German Element in the United States." In conclusion, the reader will find not much less scholarship or information, or more bias, though he will find much more illumination, in anyone of several other works on Germany since 1870 which have appeared in the last half-dozen years.

GEORGE MATTHEW DUTCHER.

Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

HOLT, LUCIUS HUDSON, and CHILTON, ALEXANDER WHEELER.

*A Brief History of Europe from 1789 to 1815.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xi, 358. \$2.75.

About two years ago Lieutenant Colonel Holt and Captain (now Lieutenant Colonel) Chilton, of the faculty of the United States Military Academy at West Point, published a textbook of the "History of Europe from 1862 to 1914," which was somewhat novel in character and distinctly timely. Their success has led them to try their hand on the period from 1789 to 1815, which offers peculiar advantages for their method of treatment. The result is the present excellent volume, which is written in a simple, clear, vigorous, often dramatic, narrative style. He will be an odd student, indeed, who does not find this an attractive text. The book, moreover, is one that may be confidently recommended to the general reader. The authors make no pretence to originality or to special scholarly acquaintance with the period, but they have a firm and accurate grasp both of the general character of the great era and of the detail of its events. Their judgments are sound, unbiased and clearly expressed.

The title does not so correctly represent the scope and method of treatment as does the opening sentence of the preface: "This history has been written in the endeavor to present in brief compass the story of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic period in proper perspective against the background of general European conditions." Aside from the opening survey of eighteenth century Europe, the whole narrative is distinctly centered around the

revolutionary movement in France, and later around the person of Napoleon. There is no attempt to treat events or conditions outside France except as they are indispensable to the explanation of French or Napoleonic action. The glaring illustration of this is the superficial account in a few lines of the regeneration of Prussia. While Lieutenant Colonel Chilton's accounts of military events form the characteristic and best part of the book, the treatment of international relations and diplomatic activities is almost equally satisfactory.

The proofreading has been well done, but occasionally a proper name has gone awry. The worst fault is in a type of error into which it is provokingly easy to fall, and which it is strangely difficult to eliminate in correcting manuscript or proof. Joseph was king of Naples, not of the Two Sicilies (page 225); Francis assumed the title of Emperor of Austria in 1804, before abandoning that of Holy Roman Emperor in 1806 (page 225); Neuchatel and Anspach were not duchies (page 224); the annexation of Rome was proclaimed in May, 1809, but not effected until several months later (pages 254, 279); the attack of the Madrid populace on Godoy was on the 17th, not the 19th, of March, 1808 (page 255), and this lesser event is mentioned to the exclusion of the more notable rising of May 2; and the recrossing of the Niemen was at Kovno, not Vilna (page 293). It would have been better practice to speak of Bonaparte instead of Napoleon prior to the assumption of the imperial title. These, however, are minor matters, and do not seriously affect the general merit of an excellent text. Mention should also be made of the maps of military campaigns prepared by Captain William Kelly Harrison, Jr.

GEORGE MATTHEW DUTCHER.

Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

DUGGAN, STEPHEN PIERCE, editor. *The League of Nations: The Principle and the Practice.* Boston: The Atlantic Monthly Press, 1919. Pp. 357. \$2.50.

This volume is the work of sixteen well-known American scholars, each one of whom has written on a specific phase of the question. Being a collaborative work it lacks the unity of a single treatment, and has repetitions which would not occur if it were the product of one mind. However, this is not all loss, since the different writers present various angles of the subject, and at times similar conclusions are reached, although a different route has been traveled.

The essays are grouped under three headings. The theme of Part One is "The History, Philosophy and Organization of a League of Nations." After an editorial introduction by Doctor Duggan, the following topics are discussed: "The Historical Background of the League," "International Co-operation," "Some Essentials of a League for Peace," "The League and the National State," "Organization and Operation of the League," "International Sanctions and Limitation of Armaments," and "International Administration." Part Two is styled "International Co-operation as Applied to Concrete Problems." Here are discussed "Self-determination and Small States," "Economic Internationalism," the "Problem of Backward Areas and Colonies," "International Control of Rail, Water and Highways," "Labor in the Peace Treaty and Freedom of the Seas." Part Three is given to America and the League of Nations. There are two chapters in this section, one on the "United States and the Policy of Isolation," and the other on "The Monroe Doctrine."

Many readers will welcome the appendices which contain the Peace Proposals of Abbé Saint Pierre and Immanuel Kant; the Holy Alliance; the Monroe Doctrine; ex-



cerpts from the Hague Convention, and the complete text of the Covenant of the League of Nations. The biographical notes arranged for each chapter will be appreciated by those who wish to do further reading on the various subjects.

The editor tells us that "the book is intended to appeal to two classes of readers: intelligent laymen seeking a general exposition of the subject, and students in need of a textbook on the subject." In no sense can the book be denominated a special plea. It may be of interest to know that the book is one used by the International Policy Clubs.

D. C. SHILLING.

Monmouth College.

TUELL, HARRIET E. *The Study of the Nations: An Experiment in Social Education.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xvii, 190. 80 cents.

Readers of the HISTORICAL OUTLOOK will remember an article by Miss Tuell in this magazine in October, 1917, which presented a plan of entering the subject of modern history by way of the study of present-day conditions in each of the important nations of Europe. This book describes that plan and reports the conclusions resulting from three years' trial of it in the Somerville, Mass., High School. One of these conclusions is that this plan of treating one nation at a time reduces much the complexity of the study of modern history. Another is that pupils find much more zest in the study of history presented after this fashion. And still another that "the domination of the textbook" is lessened, as the pupils "are obliged to go hunting in larger fields," and "with the passing of the textbook, the old-fashioned form of recitation also tends to disappear." Yet the author concedes the possibility of attaining by the traditional method the ends which this new method seeks, and declares that the experience with it is yet too brief to justify "any definite claims for it." In this method "the exact starting-point will be determined by the character and personnel of the class." "Probably no two classes will offer just the same opening. It matters little, if only the start be at some point of vital interest." The book's plan starts with France, the treatment of which is described first in full and then in outline form, of which the following is an abbreviated statement:

#### FRANCE.

##### Topical Outline and Reading References.

Keynote: "Ode to France, 1870," George Meredith.

##### A. The Land of France.

I. Map Work, France in 1914.

II. Products of France.

##### B. Industries of France.

References.

(Many authors and titles given with page references.)

##### C. The Fine Arts in France.

References.

##### D. The French Nation.

I. Discussion of the question: How does it happen that we have a distinct nation called France? Review in textbook of the beginnings of France.

II. The origins of the French language.

References.

##### E. The Influence of the Great Figures of the Past on the French Historic Tradition.

I. Roland.

References.

II. Louis IX.

References.

##### III. Joan of Arc.

References.

##### IV. Chevalier Bayard.

References.

##### V. Henry of Navarre.

References.

##### VI. Cardinal Richelieu.

References.

##### VII. Louis XIV.

References.

##### F. France the Missionary to Europe of the Doctrine of Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité.

I. Work of eighteenth century writers.

II. Influence of the American Revolution.

III. The Revolution in France.

IV. Spread of the revolutionary idea throughout Europe.

References.

##### G. The Napoleonic Tradition.

I. Textbook of the career of Napoleon I.

II. Rapid review of period of reconstruction and experiment.

III. France under the Third Napoleon.

References.

##### H. The Lesson of 1870 by which France is profiting to-day.

References.

##### I. The French Government of To-day.

References.

##### J. Colonies and Dependencies of France.

References.

##### K. Recent Changes in the French Republic.

References.

The treatment thus accorded France is given in succession to England, Germany, Russia, Italy, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Turkey and the Balkan States, "The Study of Nations" and the Great War, China, Japan and the Philippine Islands. The chapters on China and Japan are by Professor Kenneth Scott Latourette.

SEYMOUR, CHARLES, and FRARY, DONALD PAIGE. *How the World Votes.* Springfield, Mass.: G. A. Nichols Co., 1918. Vol. I, pp. 406; II, pp. 355. \$6.50.

In 713 pages of text the authors have told the story of "How the World Votes," or, as their sub-title puts it, "The Story of Democratic Development in Elections." That they have succeeded in telling this story accurately and in a very readable style will be the verdict of most readers and critics.

The preface informs us that with the fall of the Hohenzollern and the granting of universal suffrage in England "a definite milestone on the road of political evolution has been reached," and a new state confronts us whose aim is to assure "the safety and the usefulness of democracy and the democratic suffrage." While considerable use is made of historical material, the authors "have not aimed at anything approaching a complete historical survey, but have sought to furnish simply the background necessary to an intelligent comprehension of the various systems of elections now in operation."

The volumes are divided into thirty-five chapters, thirty-two of which discuss the rise of a democratic franchise in some part of the world. An introductory chapter discusses "The Four Theories of the Suffrage;" the second deals with "Elections and Democracy in the Middle Ages," and the last one is "Conclusions." In fine, the book has little



to do with theory and keeps up to its theme—*How the World Votes*.

The present reviewer finds little to criticize in the apportionment of space. When one recalls what the English-speaking peoples have contributed to a democratic suffrage, he will not be surprised to learn that 35% of the space is given to a discussion of the franchise in the British Empire and the United States. Of this allotment 136 pages are given to England, 24 to her colonies and 100 to the United States. Of the remaining 400 pages, 86 are given to France, 41 to Italy, 40 to Germany and 37 to Austria-Hungary. All the European countries (prior to 1918) receive some attention. The Low Countries are denominated "The Electoral Laboratory of Europe," and Chapter XXXI discusses "Boss Rule in Spain and Portugal." Japan and the leading countries of South America are briefly considered. One regrets that our sister republic—Mexico—has contributed so little to the democratization of the suffrage that the authors do not even mention her name. A twenty-page discussion of imperial Japan and no mention of republican China makes one wish that China had more of the earmarks of a genuine democracy.

Regardless of the fact that much of the material contained in these volumes may be found in the texts by Lowell, Ogg, Hazen, Hayes, Schapiro, et al., the present work seems a needed and valuable one, not only for college and university students, but also for a large non-academic reading public. On the whole, the authors express themselves in non-technical language, which even the layman in political science will readily understand. Occasionally, however, the use of a Latin or French phrase will confuse the novice, but why should we object to it here when it is not uncommon to find foreign phrases in our modern fiction?

The publishers have done their part in a very creditable manner. The type is clear and of a uniform size throughout. The paper is of a quality rarely seen in books of today. There are 48 illustrations in the two volumes, 23 of which are photographs of prominent men; the others show ballots, election booths, parliaments, etc.

There are no footnotes, but at the end of the work there is a bibliographical note covering each chapter. A fairly complete index is found in each volume. The proofreading has been done with care and few errors, typographical or grammatical are found. In Volume I, page 186, "tha" evidently should read "that." Volume II, page 204, line four, *lower house* manifestly should be *upper house*. Also page 195 we read, "each of which are," etc. Page 270 tells us that Argentina allows male citizens "who are seventeen years of age" the right to vote.

The reviewer desires to make it clear that he considers these two volumes of material aid to all those who are interested in problems of politics and government. A careful perusal of the pages of this work should teach us to be patient with democracy and expect to make haste slowly.

D. C. SHILLING.

Monmouth College.

BLANKENHORN, HEBER. *Adventures in Propaganda: Letters from an Intelligence Officer in France*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. 167. \$1.60.

This little volume is a collection of personal letters to the author's wife, written, it is perhaps needless to say, with no thought of publication. The writer, Captain Blankenhorn, a member of the Military Intelligence Division of the General Staff, was sent to France in the summer of 1918 to assume the direction for the American armies of that most unique factor in the Great War, "the battle

of ink, of wits, or morale against morale, of propaganda against propaganda, which was fought alongside the battle of cannon and machine-gun, gas, flame, and bayonet." After establishing relations with the Propaganda Boards of England and France, he proceeded to General Headquarters of the A. E. F. in France, where the machinery was set up for launching a propaganda drive over the enemy lines during the autumn of 1918. Captain Blankenhorn and his staff, in collaboration with the Committee on Public Information, expected to provide the "copy" for this drive, but during those momentous weeks of October and early November it was President Wilson himself who became the unique propagandist. His messages to Congress and to the German and Austrian governments made the very best sort of propaganda material, and every effort was made to get it into the pockets of the German soldier. The success of their efforts is evidenced by the fact that well-thumbed propaganda pamphlets were found in the hands of every two out of three German prisoners who came into our lines during the last days before the armistice.

Captain Blankenhorn's letters, however, are disappointing to one who is looking for an official account or narrative description of the actual work of the propaganda section. He wrote during those critical months from July to November, 1918, when a rigorous censorship naturally would prevent any but the most general statements concerning work of that character. Indeed, the only real information that the book contains is that derived from some half dozen reproductions of propaganda posters and pamphlets, both American and German, showing the nature of the material used.

The letters are most interesting nonetheless for the charm of the writer's description of his personal experiences in England and in France during the climax of the war period—experiences by no means extraordinary or even exciting, since they are mostly behind the lines. But his style is vigorous and fresh, and he draws an excellent picture of the life of many a young American officer in war-stricken France.

JOHN S. CUSTER.

Lawrence College.

SPARGO, JOHN. *Bolshevism*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1919. Pp. x, 389. \$1.50.

This book fairly makes good the claim of the author to provide "a plain and easily understandable outline of the origin, history and meaning of Bolshevism," and the fact that he is a distinguished and learned Socialist, as well as a patriotic American, lends to his judgment a conviction that will not be easily overborne. And his verdict, based largely on official documents of the Soviet Government and the writings of Lenine and Trotsky, is that the Bolsheviks have betrayed both Russia and Socialism, without any counterbalance in the form of a constructive program, and that their tyranny is as terrible as that of the Romanovs; they "have simply inverted Czarism and Militarism" (page 265). Mr. Spargo writes dispassionately, with a firm grip on the evidence and in a flowing style; he has no personal experience of Bolshevism, but has been in intimate touch with many Russian Socialists whose loyalty to the Russian Revolution is beyond question. His scholarly book will doubtless remain for a long time the best analysis of the most incalculable force of our time.

A large part of the book is historical. In the early chapters, Mr. Spargo traces the rise of the revolutionary parties, with the program of each and the several factions, and is at some pains to show that as early as the Revolution of 1905, the Bolsheviks destroyed the unity of

the Socialist movement and played the game of the bureaucracy. Though theoretical Marxists, they were unwilling to await that development of capitalism in Russia which the Marxian theory presupposed, and insisted upon an immediate revolution through the agency of a minority. For the Bolsheviks have never recognized the peasants, who comprise 85% of the population, as belonging to the proletariat, but have "relied exclusively upon armed insurrection, initiated and directed by desperate minorities" (page 71).

A second revolution was in train, so Mr. Spargo thinks, when the war of 1914 temporarily diverted discontent into patriotic channels; in the end, of course, the war brought on the Revolution of March, 1917. A genuine democratic convulsion, with the program of the Social Revolutionaries, which was largely accepted by the Provisional Government, as the goal to be reached through the Constituent Assembly, it was from the beginning opposed by the Bolsheviks, who demanded not democracy, but the rule of a minority—some 6% of the population. In his account of the struggle between the Bolsheviks and the Provisional Government, Mr. Spargo is more friendly to Kerensky than most writers; nor does he discuss adequately the relations of Russia with the Allies. But he shows that the mass of Russian opinion was hostile to the Bolsheviks, that they secured power by a military coup d'état, following which they ruthlessly suppressed all opposition to their rule, including the Constituent Assembly, which they had solemnly promised to recognize. He acquits them of deliberate pro-Germanism, but he accuses them of using the reactionaries, the old secret police, and the Black Hundreds, and he established the fact that the Soviet Government adopted all the worst methods of the old regime. Moreover, after they had destroyed the morale of the army by advocating an immediate peace and by forcing the repeal of the old rules of discipline, they immediately restored those rules and enforced conscription. How Americans of liberal or radical tendencies can find any sympathy with a government that rules by the sword, gags the press of its opponents, and imposes a constitutional inequality of suffrage (the peasants have one representative for every 125,000, the urban workers for every 25,000, not to mention the entire proscription of the bourgeoisie), excites the constant wonder of the author, and he leaves the question to the historians.

As regards the economic program, Mr. Spargo shows that the land policy of the Bolsheviks is the reverse of what the peasants want, but is land nationalization, under which the peasants are "reduced to the state of slaves paid wages by the state" (page 309), instead of a division of the land among the peasant communal organizations, although the latter was promised to the left wing of the Socialist Revolutionary party in return for its political support. In industry, there has been no attempt to improve the condition of the workers or to organize a democratic management; rather the aim has been to introduce an absolute one-man control and the efficiency standards of the Taylor system. Lenine actually contends that "there is absolutely no contradiction between the Soviet democracy and the use of dictatorial power of individuals" (page 300). The book was written in the winter of 1918-1919, and the more recent developments of Bolshevism are not discussed; but the compromises with capitalism which Lenine was already making—the use of highly-paid specialists in industry and the failure to crush the co-operative movement—are noted.

The student will welcome the liberal use of documents *in extenso*, and the numerous quotations from the Bolshevik leaders. It would have been less confusing, in the his-

torical sections, if all dates had been given in the new style, and an index would be useful. But, in general, both tone and content are admirable, and this review can only join in the approval with which the book has been received.

BERNADOTTE E. SCHMITT.

Western Reserve University.

HAZEN, CHARLES DOWNER. *Fifty Years of Europe, 1870-1919*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1919. Pp. 428.

In 1910 Professor Hazen published his "Europe Since 1815," which had a prompt and deserved success. For several years it was without a rival in its field. The author had achieved the difficult feat of producing a book which was adopted and used with satisfaction in numerous colleges and universities, and which also found a wide market with the general reader. The volume was at the same time an achievement in scholarship and style.

Fourteen chapters of the present volume are wrenched from their original setting and subjected to more or less amputation, re-setting, or grafting. The chapters thus appropriated were the weakest parts of the original work. The aimlessness of their treatment of events after 1870 was annoying prior to the outbreak of the Great War; since then it has stood out as a glaring fault. It could hardly be expected that the revamping of these chapters in the closing days of the war could be a substitute for rewriting them. Only the fifteenth chapter on the Balkan wars and the sixteenth on the World War are new. These two chapters afford clear and comprehensive accounts, but the literary coloring of the final weeks of the war does not entirely commend them for use in the college class-room. Incidentally, one must protest at the misleading use of the date 1919 in the title, when the preface confesses that the final pages were written on November 11, 1918, with which day the narrative closes.

The most grievous failure of the book is the inadequacy of the treatment of international relations from 1870 to 1914. Less than fifty lines on pages 325-326 constitute the only effort to correlate the scattered references to international relations, and to afford the student a clear and connected presentation of the movement of events through the half-century which culminated in the greatest international crisis in history. It is not the purpose of these criticisms to convey the idea that the book is not a good and useful one, but that it is an inadequate and disappointing evidence of Professor Hazen's high ability and fine scholarship. No doubt he realizes as keenly as anyone the makeshift character of the present volume, and will shortly prepare a revision of his original work with a thorough rewriting of the narrative since 1870, and with its continuation in a more judicial temper through the peace negotiations.

GEORGE MATTHEW DUTCHER.

Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

*The Preussische Jahrbücher* for November, 1919, publishes Dr. O. Münsterberg's "Militarism, Pacifism and Socialism in China for 2000 Years," a study of class organizations and of the influence on these of wars.

T. Gavan Duffy, S.J., says in his article, "On Keeping the Church Catholic" (*Dublin Review* for January), that England has offered India next to nothing to feed her soul, and that the greatest antagonism found there is that existing between the priests and the natives.

## Geography and Reconstruction

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PHILADELPHIA

## Notes from the Historical Field

The [English] Historical Association has, under the editorship of Prof. F. J. C. Hearnshaw, issued its eighth "Annual Bulletin of Historical Literature." The pamphlet is divided into nine parts, treating respectively of ancient history, contributed by Misses A. Gardner and M. T. Stead; medieval history, 1000 to 1200, by Prof. F. M. Powicke; later medieval history, by Miss E. E. Power; the sixteenth century, by Prof. A. F. Pollard; the seventeenth century, by Prof. T. C. Montague; the eighteenth century, by Dr. G. S. Veitch; the nineteenth century and general works, by the editor.

"The High School Library" is the topic of No. 47 of *Teaching*, published by the State Normal School at Emporia, Kan. The issue contains short statements upon the selection, arrangement and use of the school library. It also gives a list of five hundred books for a senior high school library; a list of four hundred volumes for a junior high school library; suggestions for magazines for the teacher; lists of reference books and library aids.

"Syllabus for the Study of the National Period of the History of the United States" has been prepared by L. B. Shippee, of the University of Minnesota, and published by the Perine Book Co., of Minneapolis. The outline consists of sixty-three topics covering the period from 1760 to 1918. Upon each topic there is a summary in paragraph form, appended to which are references for required reading, and for collateral readings in secondary and original works.

In the *American Political Science Review* for February (Vol. XIV, No. 1) appears Prof. H. J. Ford's presidential address delivered at Cleveland, entitled, "Present Tendencies in American Politics." Other articles are: "Revolutionary Communism in the United States," by G. S. Watkins, and "The New German Constitution," by W. J. Shepard. The number contains the usual valuable compilations and interpretations of constitutional law, American government and politics, legislative acts, foreign politics and governments, international affairs.

The Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh has issued (1919) the third edition of its *Debate Index*. Several hundred topics are included in the list, and under each are given references to works on the subject; somewhat over one hundred books and magazines are referred to.

The principal articles in *History* for January (Vol. IV, No. 16) are: "The History of the Scheldt," by Ch. Terlinden; "The Need of Naval History," by A. C. Dewar; "School Historical Societies," by several contributors. Under the heading, "Historical Revisions," in which in previous numbers so many historical fictions have been laid low, is a new point of view with reference to English craft guilds in the Middle Ages. A useful compilation is given of the topics of historical research at four English universities during the period 1911-1918.

The Constitution of the German Commonwealth has been translated by W. B. Munro and A. N. Holcombe, and is printed in *League of Nations* for December, 1919 (Vol. II, No. 6). A brief introduction outlines the German Revolution of November, 1918, and the character and organization of the constitutional convention.

"The New American Thrift" is the topic treated in thirty-eight articles in the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* for January (Vol. LXXXVII, No. 176). The articles are grouped under the



following headings: Thrift for the Individual and the Family; Thrift for the Nation; American Needs for Capital; Thrift in Resources and in Industry; the Investment of Savings; Promotion and Practice of Thrift in Different Countries; and Suggestions for Promoting Thrift. Dr. G. F. Zook contributes a brief bibliography of the subject.

"Books at Work," a pamphlet issued by the American Library Association (1919), describes and illustrates the remarkable war work of the association. It also shows that a new vision has been gained of the part that "reading, fostered by adequate, well-administered libraries can play in continuing a work begun in the schools—that of making all our citizens intelligent, productive and public-spirited."

Information concerning the city-manager plan of municipal government will be found in the February number (Vol. VII, No. 55) of the *Short Ballot Bulletin*. A list of 107 cities in which the plan has been adopted, shows that 23 places introduced the plan in 1919, having a total population of 350,000; and that up to February 24, 1920, five additions were made, representing a population of 98,500.

## Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

In his article on "An Eighteenth Century Cleric Scientist" (*Edinboro Review* for March), J. Paul de Castro gives not only an interesting account of his "cleric," Reverend Stephen Hales, but gives also several glimpses of the social customs of those days, and of college life.

Students of social history will find Allan H. Gilbert's "Milton on the Position of Woman" (*Modern Language Review* for January) of especial value. Milton is considered as representative of one especial type of opinion dominating the middle seventeenth century.

In his article, "Indian Nationality," in the *Calcutta Review* for January, R. N. Gilchrist says: "Applying the race test in Indian nationality, what we find is a total absence of common origin and of common physical characteristics. From the point of view of race alone, India could be a series of nationalities, but not a single nationality. Not only is there a number of clearly defined racial groups in India, but even in what is usually regarded as homogeneous groups there is a considerable amount of race mixture. . . . The differences of race in India are very largely reproduced in language." However, he finds the choice of English by the natives as an official language a hopeful sign which may point the way to unity at last.

The *Fortnightly Review* for February publishes three short articles under the title, "Problems of the Middle East." In the first, "The Arab Question," Robert Mackay says: "At least it may safely be said that the establishment at present of Arab States without firm and strong guidance from outsiders undesirable and might be disastrous to general interest." In the second, "Pilsudski and New Poland," Sidney Huddleston considers Pilsudski as the "synthesis of the nation . . . embodying its ideals. He alone is capable of fusing and fashioning a people recast in such conditions." H. Charles Wood, in the third, "The Turkish Tangle," does not undertake to offer a solution for what is awry in that unfortunate land. He simply states and explains a few of the more serious entanglements.

In his article on "The Economic Chaos in Europe" (*Contemporary Review* for January), Norman Angell analyzes and sifts the facts of the economic situation abroad. The problem, he says, is not one of temporary

financial embarrassment, but the whole economic future of the world depends on our restoring, and, if possible, increasing the productivity of Europe as a whole.

"We must remember that where great improvements have taken place in London areas have been concerned affecting various trades, and so touching the livelihood of the wage-earning classes and the difficulty of rebuilding has been effectually solved," says E. Beresford Chancellor in his article on "A Nobler and Reconstructed London," which is published in the *Nineteenth Century* for February.

"Austria's Present Plight and Dismal Future" (by Dr. A. E. Taylor in the December *Review of Reviews*) holds out but little hope for Austria to achieve any national existence in the future, as she is "condemned to permanent isolation by the Allied Councils."

"It is for the interest both of Great Britain and of the United States that they shall not only be friendly, but that the sympathy arising out of intimate understanding shall exist between them, that they shall pursue the same ends and have a common policy. Self-interest on both sides dictates this, but one would like to ascribe a higher motive. The peace, the security, the well-being, the future progress and civilization of the world are largely in the keeping of Great Britain and the United States, provided each believes in the sincerity and disinterestedness of the other," says A. Maurice Low in his article, "England and America" (*Edinburgh Review* for October).

In the *Deutsche Revue* for September appears the second number of C. von Weizsacker's "Württemberg Memories," an account of happenings in southern Germany during the two years preceding the outbreak of the war. As yet these "Memories" are too incomplete and fragmentary to be of any value.

## HISTORICAL ARTICLES IN CURRENT PERIODICALS.

LISTED BY LEQ F. STOCK.

### GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS.

- Why Teach History? E. Lyttelton (*Anglo-French Review*, January).
- Concerning the Teaching of History. William T. Laprade (*Educational Review*, March).
- Ur of the Chaldees. Maj.-Gen. Sir George MacMunn (*Cornhill's*, February).
- Tribal Mixture on the Gold Coast. F. W. H. Migeod (*Journal of the African Society*, January).
- The Story of Japan. By a Government Official (*Mid-Pacific Magazine*, March).
- An Iberian Jeanne d'Arc. Vincent Starrett (*Open Court*, February). Andamana of the Canary Islands.
- Venezuela and the Monroe Doctrine. C. A. Kulp (*Pan-American Magazine*, January).
- Some Personal Recollections. Sir Sidney Colvin (*Scribner's*, March). III. Robert Louis Stevenson.
- Before the World War. Alexander Iswolaky (*Fortnightly Review*, March). Inception of the Triple Entente and the Algeiras conference.

### BRITISH EMPIRE.

- The First Adventure of the Common Law. W. J. Johnston (*Law Quarterly Review*, January).
- Are the Irish Celts an Inferior Race? Q. E. D. (*National Review*, February).
- The Walls of Derry. J. A. Strahan (*Blackwood's*, February).
- Small Councils and Cabinets in England. Edward R. Turner (*Sewanee Review*, January-March).

- The Origins of the English Bar, V. Frederick Pollock (*Law Quarterly Review*, January).
- The Ecclesiastical Situation in Scotland. Lord Balfour (*Contemporary Review*, January).
- What and How they Ate in the Days of Elizabeth. Katherine Morse (*Seawane Review*, January-February).
- The Elizabethan Church and Non-Episcopal Communion. Rev. W. K. Fleming (*Contemporary Review*, February).
- Spiritualism in the Days of Charles II. J. G. Muddiman (*Contemporary Review*, January).
- The Slave in Upper Canada. William R. Riddell (*Canadian Magazine*, March).
- The British Protectorate of Egypt. Malcolm McIlwraith (*Fortnightly Review*, March).

## THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS.

- Propaganda, and the Father of It. Maj.-Gen. Sir George Aston (*Cornhill's*, February).
- What the War Did for Canada. William Banks (*Current History*, March).
- Austria's Peace Offer in 1917. (*Current History*, March).
- The Dardanelles Campaign. H. Charles Woods (*Contemporary Review*, January).
- The Retreat of the Serbian Army. Capt. G. Gordon-Smith (*Current History*, February, March).
- An Airman's Experiences in East Africa (continued). Leo Walmsley (*Blackwood's*, February).
- A Company of Tanks (continued). Maj. W. H. L. Watson (*Blackwood's*, February).
- The Nivelle Affaire. F. Maurice (*National Review*, February).
- The Victory at Sea. Rear-Adm. William S. Sims (*World's Work*, March). VII. College boys and submarines.
- The Settlement of the Near East. Viscount Bryce (*Contemporary Review*, January).

## THE UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES.

- Eusebio Kino, 1644-1711. Rev. Thomas J. Campbell (*Catholic Historical Review*, January).
- Judicial Control over Legislatures as to Constitutional Questions. Jackson H. Ralston (*American Law Review*, January-February).
- Setting of the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence. A. J. Morrison (*Texas Review*, October).
- The Irish in Early Illinois. Joseph J. Thompson (*Illinois Catholic Historical Review*, January).
- The Catholic Church in America in 1819. Rev. J. Wilfrid Parsons (*Catholic Historical Review*, January).
- The Franciscans in Southern Illinois (continued). Rev. Silas Barth (*Illinois Catholic Historical Review*, January).
- Famous Steamboats and their Captains on Western and Southern Waters. Ella H. Ellwanger (*Register of Kentucky State Historical Society*, January).
- History of the Trappists in Kentucky. Rt. Rev. Edmund M. Obrecht (*Register of Kentucky State Historical Society*, January).
- The Diary of a Japanese Ambassador. Muragaki-Awaji-No-Kani (*Mid-Pacific Magazine*, March). The journal of Japan's first ambassador to the United States, translated by S. Miyoshi.
- New York and the National Banking System. A. Barton Hepburn (*Quarterly Journal of the New York State Historical Association*, January).
- John W. Taylor: New York's Speaker of the House of Representatives. D. S. Alexander (*Quarterly Journal of the New York State Historical Association*, January).
- Lincoln the Reader. Talcott Williams (*American Review of Reviews*, February).
- Theodore Roosevelt and His Times. Joseph B. Bishop (*Scribner's*, March). VII. Personal account of his trip from Khartoum to London.

## BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM JANUARY 31 TO FEBRUARY 28, 1920.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, Ph.D.

## AMERICAN HISTORY.

- Fish, Carl R. The restoration of the southern railroads. Madison, Wis.: Univ. of Wis. 28 pp. 50 cents.
- Indiana, Historical Commission. The Indiana Centennial, 1916. A record of the celebration [etc.]. Indianapolis: Indiana Historical Society. 441 pp. \$1.50.
- Livermore, Col. Thomas L. Days and events, 1860-1866. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 485 pp. \$6.00, net.
- Parker, Arthur C. The life of Gen. Ely S. Parker, Gen. Grant's military secretary. Buffalo, N. Y.: Buffalo Hist. Soc. 346 pp. \$4.00, net.
- U. S. Office of Naval Intelligence. Information concerning the U. S. Navy and other navies. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 91 pp. 15 cents.

## ANCIENT HISTORY.

- Chiera, Edward. List of personal names from the Temple School at Nippur. Phila.: Univ. of Penna., Univ. Museum. 179-278 pp. \$5.00.
- Linforth, Ivan M. Solon, the Athenian. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Calif. 318 pp. (6 pp. bibls.). \$3.00.
- Thucydides. History of the Peloponnesian War. [Loeb Classical Library.] N. Y.: Putnam. 459 pp. \$2.25, net.

## ENGLISH HISTORY.

- Quennell, Marjorie, and Quennell, Charles H. B. A history of every-day things in England, in two parts, of which this is the second, 1500-1799. N. Y.: Scribner. 207 pp. \$4.50.
- Robertson, John M. Bolingbroke and Walpole. N. Y.: Scribner. 266 pp. \$4.00.
- Scott, Admiral Sir Percy. Fifty years in the Royal Navy. N. Y.: Doran. 342 pp. \$6.00, net.

## EUROPEAN HISTORY.

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